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## DIVINE LEGATION

OF Samielliller

# M O S E S

DEMONSTRATED.

IN NINE BOOKS.

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#### THE

## DIVINE LEGATION

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# M O S E S

### DEMONSTRATED.

### BOOK II.

#### SECT. V.

ITHERTO we have shewn the Magistrate's care in PROPAGATING the belief of a God, --- of his providence over human affairs, --- and of the way in which that providence is chiefly dispensed; namely, by rewards and punishments in a future state. These things make the essence of Religion, and compose the body of it.

His next care was for the SUPPORT of Religion, fo propagated. And this was done by UNITING it to the State, taking it under the civil protection, and giving it the rights and privileges of an ESTABLISHMENT. Accordingly we find all states and people in the ancient world had an ESTABLISHED RELIGION; which was under the more immediate Vol. II.

protection of the civil magistrate, in contradistin-

ction to those that were only Toler ATED.

How close these two interests were united in the egyptian Policy, is notorious to all acquainted with antiquity. Nor were the politest republics less solicitous for the common interests of the two Societies, than that sage and powerful monarchy, the nurse of arts and virtue; as we shall see hereaster, in the conduct both of Rome and Athens, for the support and preservation of the established worship.

But an established religion is the voice of nature; and not confined to certain ages, people, or religions. That great voyager and sensible observer of men and manners, J. Baptiste Tavernier, speaking of the kingdom of Tunquin, thus delivers himself concerning this universal policy, as he saw it practised, in his time, both in the East and West: "I come now to the political description of this kingdom, under which I compresion of the religion, which is, almost every where, in concert with the civil government, for the mutual "support of one another"."

That the magistrate established religion, united it to the state, and took it into his immediate protection for the sake of civil society, cannot be questioned; the advantages to Government being so

apparent.

But the necessity of this union for procuring those advantages, as likewise the number and extent of them, are not so easily understood. Nor indeed can they be understood without a perfect knowledge of the nature of an established religion,

a Je viens à la description politique de ce royaume, dans laquelle je comprens la religion, qui est presque en tous lieux de concert avec le gouvernement civil pour l'appry reciproque de l'un et de l'autre. Relation nouvelle du Royaume de Tunquin, c. x. à la fin.

and of those principles of equity, on which it ariseth. But as this master-piece of human policy hath been of late, tho' but of late, called in question, after having from the first institution of society, even to the present age, been universally practised by the magistrate, and as universally approved by philosophers and divines; and as our question is the conduct of lawgivers, and legitimate magistrates, whose institutions are to be defended on the rules of reason and equity; not of tyrants, who set themselves above both, it will not be improper to examine this matter to the bottom; especially as the enquiry is so necessary to a perfect knowledge of the civil advantages, resulting from an established religion.

We must at present then, lay aside our ideas of the ancient modes of civil and religious societies; and search what they are, in themselves, by nature; and thence deduce the institution in question.

I shall do this in as few words as possible; and refer those, who desire a fuller account of this matter, to a separate discourse; intituled The Alli-ANCE BETWEEN CHURCH AND STATE.

In the beginning of the first book, where we speak of the origin of civil society, the reader may remember we have shewn the natural desiciency of its plan; and how the insluence and fanction of re-

ligion only can supply that defect.

Religion then being proved necessary to society, that it should be so used and applied, and in the best way, and to most advantage, needs no proof. For it is as instinctive in our nature to improve, as to investigate and pursue any particluar good: and with regard to the improvement of this in question, there is special reason why it should be studied. For the experience of every place and age informs us, that the coactivity of civil laws and religion, is little enough

to keep men from running into diforder and mutual violence.

But this improvement is the effect of art and contrivance. For all natural good, every thing conflitutionally beneficial to man, needs man's industry to make it better. We receive it at the provident hand of heaven, rather with a capacity of being applied to our use, than immediately sit for our service. We receive it indeed, in sull measure, but rude and unprepared.

Now, concerning this technical improvement of moral good, it is in artificial bodies as in natural; two may be so essentially constituted, as to be greatly able to adorn and strengthen one another: But then, as in this case, a mere juxta-position of the parts is not sufficient; so neither is it in that: some union, some coalition, some artful insertion

into each other will be necessary.

But then again, as in natural bodies the artift is unable to fet about the proper operation, till he hath acquired a reasonable knowledge of the nature of those bodies, which are the subject of his skill; so neither can we know in what manner religion may be best applied to the service of the state, till we have learned the real and essential natures both of a state and a religion. The obvious qualities of both sufficiently shew, that they must needs have a good essect on each other, when properly applied; as our artist, by his knowledge of the obvious qualities of two natural bodies, we suppose, may discern; tho' he hath not yet got sufficient acquaintance with their nature to make this proper application.

It behoves us therefore to gain a right know-ledge of the nature both of a civil and of a reli-

gious fociety.

I. To begin with civil fociety: It was inflituted either with the purpose of attaining all the good of every kind, it was even accidentally capable of producing; or only of some certain good, which the inflitutors had in view, unconcerned with, and unattentive to, any other. To suppose its end to be the vague purpose of acquiring all possible accidental good, is, in politics, a mere folecism; as hath been fufficiently shewn by the writers on this question b. And how untrue it is in fact, may be gathered from what hath been faid in the beginning, of the origin of fociety. Civil fociety then, I suppose, will be allowed to have been instituted for the attainment of fome certain end or ends, exclusive of others: and this implies the necessity of distinguishing this end from others. Which distinction arises from the different properties of the things pretending. But again, amongst all those things, which are apt to obtrude, or have, in fact, obtruded upon men, as the ends of civil government, there is only this difference in their properties, as ends; That, one of them is attainable by civil society only, and all the rest are easily obtained without it. The thing then with that property must needs be the genuine end of civil fociety. And this end is no other than security to the TEMPORAL LI-BERTY AND PROPERTY OF MAN. For this end (as we have shewn) civil society was invented; and this, civil fociety alone is able to procure. The great, but spurious rival of this end, the SALVA-TION OF SOULS, or the security of man's future happiness, belongs therefore to the other division. For

b See Locke's Defences of his Letters on Toleration. This appears too to have been Aristotle's opinion — φυσει με εν διώρις αι το θήλοι, κή το δέλου έδεν γιας ή φύσις ποίει τοιθτον, οίον χαλκοδύποι την Δελφικήν μάχαις αν πενιχεώς, άλλ' εν περος εν, etc. Polit. 1. i. c. 1.

this not depending on outward accidents, or on the will or power of another, as the body and goods do, may be as well attained in a ftate of nature, as in civil fociety; and therefore, on the principles here delivered, cannot be one of the causes of the institution of civil government; nor, consequently, one of the ends thereof. But if so, the promotion of it comes not within the proper province of the magistrate.

II. Secondly, as to religious fociety, or a Church, This being inflituted to preferve purity of faith and worship, its ultimate end is the SALVATION OF

souls: From whence it follows,

I. That the religious society must needs be sove-REIGN, and INDEPENDENT ON THE CIVIL. Natural dependency of one fociety on another, arises either from the law of nature, or of nations. Dependency by the law of nature, is from effence or generation. Dependency from effence there can be none. For this kind of dependency being a mode of natural union and coalition; and coalition being only where there is an agreement in eodem tertio; and there being no fuch agreement between two focieties effentially different, as these are, there can posfibly be no dependency. Dependency from generation is where one fociety fprings up from another; as corporations, colleges, companies, and chambers, in a city. These, as well by the conformity of their ends and means, as by their charters of incorporation, betray their original and dependency. But religious society, by ends and means quite different, gives internal proof of its not arising from the state; and we have shewn by external evidence; that it existed before the state had any being. Again, no dependency can arise from the law of na-

e See Book iii. fect. 6.

tions, or the civil law. Dependency by this law is, where one and the fame people composing two different societies, the imperium of the one clashes with the imperium of the other. And, in such case, the lesser society becomes, by that law, dependent on the greater; because the not being so, would make that absurdity in politics, called imperium in imperio. But now civil and religious society, having ends and means entirely different; and the means of civil society being coercive power, which power therefore the religious hath not; it follows, that the administration of each society is exercised in so remote spheres, that they can never meet to clash: And those societies which never clash, necessity of state cannot bring into dependency on one another.

2. It follows, That this independent religious society bath not, in and of itself, any coastive power of the civil kind: Its inherent jurisdiction being in its nature and use entirely different from that of the state. For if, as hath been proved, civil society was instituted for the attainment of one species of good (all other good, requisite to human happinefs, being to be attained without it) and that civil fociety attains the good, for which it was ordained, by the fole mean of coercive power; then it follows, that the good, which any other kind of fociety feeks, may be attained without that power; confequently, coercive power is unnecessary to a religious fociety. But that mean, which is unnecessary for the attainment of any end, is likewise unfit; in all cases, but in that, where fuch mean is rendered unneceffary by the use of other means of the same kind or species. But religious society attains its end by means of a different kind; therefore coercive power is not only unnecessary, but unfit. Again, Ends in their nature different, can never be attained by one and the fame mean. Thus in the cafe before

us: coercive power can only influence us to outward practice; by outward practice only, is the good which civil fociety aims at, immediately effected; therefore is coercive power peculiarly fit for civil fociety. But the good, which religious fociety aims at, cannot be effected by outward practice; therefore coercive power is altogether unfit for that fociety.

Having thus by a diligent enquiry found,

I. First, That the care of the civil society extends only to the body, and its concerns; and the care of the religious society only to the soul: it necessarily follows, that the civil magistrate, if he will improve this natural influence of religion by human art and contrivance, must feek some union or alliance with the church. For his office not extending to the care of sculs, he hath not, in himself, power to enforce the influence of religion: and the church's province not extending to the body, and confequently being without coactive power, she has not, in herself alone, a power of applying that influence to civil purposes. The conclusion is, that their joint powers must cooperate thus to apply and inforce the influence of religion. But they can never act conjointly but in union and alliance.

II. Secondly, having found that each fociety is fovereign, and independent on the other, it as necessarily follows, that fuch union can be produced only by free convention and mutual compact: because, whatever is sovereign and independent, can be brought to no act without its own consent: but nothing can give birth to a free convention, but a sense of mutual wants, that may be supplied; or a view of mutual benefits, that may be gain-

ed by it.

Such then is the nature of that union which produceth a RELIGION BY LAW ESTABLISHED: and which is, indeed, no other than a public league and alliance for mutual support and defence. For the state, not having the care of fouls, cannot inforce the influence of religion; and therefore feeks the concurring aid of the church: and the church having no coercive power (the confequence of its care's not extending to bodies) as naturally flies for protection to the state: this being of that kind of alliance which Grotius calls foedus in Æquale --- "Inæquale " fœdus (fays he) hic intelligo quod ex ipfa vi pac-"tionis manentem prælationem quandam alteri do-"nat: hoc est, ubi quis tenetur alterius impe-"rium ac majestatem conservare ut potentioni " PLUS HONORIS, INFIRMIORI PLUS AUXILII DEFE-" RATUR d."

An alliance, then, by free convention, being in its nature such that each party must have its motives for contracting; our next enquiry will be,

I. What those motives were, which the state had for feeking, and the church for accepting the offers

of an union: And,

II. The mutual benefits and advantages thereby arifing.

The motives the magistrate had to seek this alli-

ance, were these:

I. To preferve the effence and purity of religion.

II. To improve its usefulness, and apply its influence in the best manner.

III. To prevent the mischief that, in its natural independent state, it might occasion to civil society.

I. The magistrate was induced to seek it, I. As the necessary means of preserving the being of religion. For though (as hath been shewn in the treatise of

De Jure Belli et Pac. l. i. c. 3. § 21.

the Alliance c) religion constitutes a society; and tho' this fociety will indeed, for fome time, support the existence of religion, which, without it, would foon vanish from amongst men; yet, if we consider that religious fociety is made up of the fame individuals which compose the civil; and destitute likewise of all coercive power; we must needs see, that a society, abandoned to its own fortune, without support or protection, would, in no long time, be fwallowed up and lost. Of this opinion was a very able writer, whose knowledge of human nature will not be disputed: "Were it not, says he, for that sense of "virtue, which is principally preserved, so far as "it is preferved, BY NATIONAL FORMS AND HA-"BITS OF RELIGION, men would foon lofe it all, "run wild, prey upon one another, and do what " else the worst of savages do f."

2. But of whatever use an alliance may be thought, for preferving the being of religion, the necessity of it, for preserving its purity, is most evident: for if truth, and public utility coincide, the nearer any religion approaches to the truth of things, the fitter that religion is for the service of the state. That they do coincide, that is, that truth is productive of utility, and utility indicative of truth, may be proved on any principles but the atheistic; and therefore we think it needless, in this place, to draw out the argument in form 5: Let us then confider the danger religion runs of deviating from truth, when left, in its natural state, to itself. In those circumstances, the men of highest credit, are such as are famed for greatest fanctity. This sanctity hath been generally understood to be then most per-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> Rook i. § 5. <sup>f</sup> Wollaston's Religion of Nature delineated, p. 124. Quarto Edit. 1725.

F See Book iii. § 5.

fect, when most estranged from the world, and all its habits and relations. But this being only to be acquired by fecession and retirement from affairs; and that fecession rendering man ignorant of civil fociety, and of its rights and interefts; in place of which will fucceed, according to his natural temper, the destructive follies either of fuperstition or fanaticism, we must needs conclude, that religion, under fuch directors and reformers, and God knows these are generally its lot, will deviate from truth; and confequently from a capacity, in proportion, of ferving civil fociety. I wish I could not fay we have too many examples to fupport this observation. The truth is, we have seen, and yet do see religious societies, some grown up, and continuing unsupported by, and ununited with the state; others, that, when supported and united, have by strange arts brought the state into subjection, and become its tyrants and usurpers; and thereby defeated all the good that can arise from this alliance; fuch focieties, I fay, we have feen, whose religious doctrines are fo little ferviceable to civil government, that they can prosper only on the ruin and destruction of it. Such are those which teach the holiness of celibacy and asceticism, the sinfulness of defensive war, of capital punishments, and even of civil magistracy itself.

On the other hand, when religion is in alliance with the flate, as it then comes under the magiffrate's direction, those holy leaders having now neither credit nor power to do mischief, its purity must needs be reasonably well supported and preserved: for truth and public utility coinciding, the civil magistrate, as such, will see it for his interest to seek after, and promote truth in religion: and, by means of public utility, which his office enables him so well to understand, he will never be at a

Iofs to know where fuch truth is to be found: fo that it is impossible, under this civil influence, for religion ever to deviate far from truth; always supposing (for on such supposition this whole theory proceeds) a LEGITIMATE government, or civil policy, established on the principles of the natural rights and liberties of man: for an unequal and unjust government, which seeks its own, not public utility, will always have occasion for error; and so, must corrupt religion both in principle and practice to promote its own wrong interests.

II. Secondly, the magistrate was induced to seek this alliance, as the necessary means to improve the usefulness, and to apply in the best manner, the influence of religion for his service. And this an alliance does

by feveral ways.

1. By bestowing additional reverence and veneration on the person of the civil MAGISTRATE, and on the LAWS of the state. For, in this alliance, where the religious fociety is taken into the protection of the state, the supreme magistrate, as will be shewn hereafter, is acknowledged HEAD of the religion. Now nothing can be imagined of more efficacy for securing the obedience of the people. Those two great masters in politics, Aristotle and Machiavel, as we have feen, thought it of force enough to gain reverence and fecurity to a tyrant. What then must we suppose its efficacy in a legitimate magistrate? The same veneration will extend itself over the laws likewise: For while some of them are employed by the state for the support of the church, and others lent to the church to be employed in the service of the state, and all of them enacted by a legislature, in which churchmen have a confiderable share (all these things being amongst the conditions of alliance h) laws, under fuch di-

<sup>\*</sup> See the Alliance between Ch. and St. B. ii. c. 3. rection,

rection, must needs be regarded with greatest reverence.

2. By lending to the church a coastive power --- It may be remembred, that, in speaking of the innate defects of civil fociety, we observed, that there were feveral forts of duties which civil laws could not inforce; fuch as the duties of IMPERFECT OB-LIGATION; which a religious fociety, when endowed with coercive power, to invigorate the influence of religion, is capable of exacting: and such likewife of the duties of PERFECT OBLIGATION; whose breach is owing to the intemperance of the fenfual appetites; the fevere prohibition of which threatens greater and more enormous evils: for while these unruly passions overflow, the stopping them in one place is causing them to break out with greater violence in another: as the rigorous punishment of fornication hath been generally feen to give birth to unnatural lusts. The effectual correction therefore of fuch evils must be begun by moderating and subduing the passions themselves. But this, civil laws are not understood to prescribe i; as punishing those passions only when they proceed to act; and nor rewarding the attempts to fubdue them: it must be a tribunal regarding irregular intentions as criminal, and good defires as meritorious, that can work this effect; which is no other than the tribunal of religion. When this is once done, a coactive power of the civil kind may be applied to good purpose; but not till then: And who fo fit to apply it as that fociety, which prepared the subject for its due

i These were the considerations, doubtless, which induced the excellent author *De l'esprit des loix* to say, Il est aisé de regler par des loix ce qu'on doit aux autres; il est difficile d'y comprendre tout ce qu'on se doit à soi-meme. Vol. i. p. 167. 4to.

application and reception? k Again, it hath been observed 1, that the state punishes deviations from the rule of right as crimes only; and not as fuch deviations, or as fins; and, on the idea of crimes, proportions its punishments: by which means fome very enormous deviations from the rule of right, which do not immediately affect fociety, and fo are not confidered as crimes, are overlooked by the civil tribunal: yet these, being, tho' mediately, very pernicious to the state, it is for its interests they should be brought before some capable tribunal. But, befides the civil, there is no other than the ecclefiaftical, endowed with coactive power. Hence may be deduced the true, and only end and use of SPIRITUAL courts. A church tribunal then, with coactive power, being necessary in all these cases; and a religious fociety having, in itself, no fuch power, it must be borrowed from the state: but a state cannot lend it, without great danger to itself, but on the terms of an alliance; a state therefore will be induced to feek this alliance, in order to improve the natural efficacy of religion.

3. By conferring on the state the application of the efficacy of religion, and by putting it under the magi-firate's direction. --- There are certain junctures when the influence of religion is more than ordinarily serviceable to the state: and these the civil magistrate only knows. Now while a church is in its

1 See the Alliance, Book i. § 4.

k A jurisdiction somewhat resembling this we find in the famous court of Areopagus at Athens: which city was once the model of civil prudence as well as of religion, to the improved part of mankind. Isocrates speaking of this branch of jurisdiction in the Areopagus, says, "It was not exerted to pu-" nish crimes, but to prevent them --- & τῶτο περῶτον ἐσκόπεν, δι' ὧν κολάσυσι τὰς ἀκοτμῶνθας, ἀλλ' ἐξ ὧν ὧν καλασκονάσυσι μηθὰν αὐτὰς ἄξιον ζημίας βυλήσειδαι ἀμαβίανειν. ἡγῦιο γὰς τῦτο μὲν αὐτῶν ἔξγον τὸ. ΑΡΕΙΟΠ. ΛΟΓ.

natural state of independency, it is not in his power to improve those conjunctures to the advantage of the state, by a proper application of religion: but when the *alliance* is made, and consequently the church under his direction, he hath then authority to prescribe such public exercises of religion, and at such times and in such manner as he finds the exigencies of state require.

4. By engaging the church to apply its utmost endeavours in the service of the state. For an alliance laying an obligation on the state to protect and defend the church, and to provide a settled maintenance for its ministers, such benefits must needs produce the highest love and esteem for the benefactor: which will be returned, out of motives both of gratitude and interest, in the most zealous la-

bours for the service of civil government.

III. Lastly, the state was induced to seek this alliance, as the only means of preventing the mischiefs, which, the church in its natural independent condition, might occasion to civil society. For, in this state the church having, of itself, a power of assembling for religious worship, factious men may commodiously, under that cover, hatch and carry on defigns against the peace of civil government: and the influence which popular and leading men gain over the consciences of such assemblies, by the frequency of public harangues, may eafily ripen these contrivances into act, when strengthened with the specious pretext of religion: all which evils are effectually remedied by this allience. For then, the civil magistrate being become protector of the church, and, confequently, supreme head and director of it, the ministry is mostly in his power; that mutual dependency, between the clergy and people, being, by means of a fettled revenue, quite broken and destroyed. He admits and excludes to the exercise of their function, as he sees sit; and grants it to none, but such as give a previous security for their allegiance to him: by which means, all that influence, which the ministers and leaders in a church had over it before the alliance, as the protestors of religion, is now drawn off from them, and placed solely in the civil magistrate.

Another mischief there is in this unallied condition of the church, still more certain and fatal, whenever above one religion is found in a state. For in these latter ages, every sect thinking itself the only true church, or, at least, the most perfect, is naturally pushed on to advance its own scheme upon the ruins of the rest: and where argument fails, civil power is brought in, as foon as ever a party can be formed in the public administration: and we find, they have been but too fuccessful in perfuading the magistrate that his interests are concerned in their religious differences. Now the most effectual remedy to the dangerous and strong convulfions, into which states are fo frequently thrown by these struggles, is an alliance, which establishes one church, and gives a full toleration to the rest; only keeping sectaries out of the public administration: From a heedless admission into which, these disorders have arisen.

Having now shewn the principal motives which engaged the state to feek an alliance with the church,

I come, in the next place, to consider the motives which the church had to accept of it. For this being, as is observed, a free convention, unless the church, as well as state, had its proper views, no alliance could have been formed. To discover these motives, we must recollect what hath been said of the nature and end of a religious society:

for the benefits adapted to that nature and end, must be her legitimate motive: but if so, this benefit can be no other than SECURITY FROM ALL EXTERIOR VIOLENCE. The state indeed could not justly offer it, had no alliance been made: but this is no reason why the church should not think it for its interest to secure its natural right by compast; any more than that one state should not stipulate with another not to do it violence, though that other was under prior obligations, by the law of nature and nations, to sorbear.

But by this alliance between the two focieties, the state does more: it not only promises not to injure the church confederated, but to ferve it; that is, to protect it from the injuries of other religious focieties, which then exift, or may afterwards arife in the state. How one religious society may be injuriously affected by another, we have shewn just before; how great those injuries may prove, will be shewn hereafter. It must needs then be the first care of a church, and a reasonable care, to preserve itself, by all lawful ways, from outward violence. A state then, as hath been said, in order to induce the church's acceptance of this offer, must propose fome benefit by it: and because this is the only legitimate benefit the church can receive, it must propose this: which, therefore, being considerable, will be the church's motive for alliance.

There are only two other considerations that can be esteemed motives: the one, to engage the state to propagate the established religion by force: and the other, to bestow honours, riches, and powers upon it. Now, on recurring to the nature and end of the two societies, the sirst motive will be found unjust; and the second, impertinent. It is unjust in the church to require the engagement; because the performing it would be violating the natural right every man Yor. II.

hath of worshiping God according to his own confcience. It is *unjust* in the state to engage in it; because, as we have shewn, its jurisdiction extendeth not to opinions.

It is *impertinent* in a church to aim at riches, honours, and powers, because these are things which, as a church, she can neither use nor profit by; for they have no natural tendency to promote the *ultimate* end of this society, salvation of souls; nor the *immediate* end, purity of worship. "Nihil "ecclesia sibi nisi sidem possidet," fays St. Ambrose. We conclude, therefore, that the only legitimate motive she could have, was security and protession from outward violence.

On these mutual motives was formed this FREE ALLIANCE; which gave birth to a CHURCH BY LAW ESTABLISHED.

Now as from the nature of the two societies we discovered what kind of union only they could enter into; so from that consideration, together with the motives they had in uniting, may be deduced, by necessary inference, the reciprocal TERMS and conditions of that union.

From the mutual motives inducing thereunto, it appears, that the great preliminary and fundamental article of alliance is this, THAT THE CHURCH SHALL APPLY ITS UTMOST INFLUENCE IN THE SERVICE OF THE STATE; AND THAT THE STATE SHALL SUPPORT AND PROTECT THE CHURCH.

But in order to the performance of this agreement, there must be a mutual communication of their respective powers: for the province of each society being naturally distinct and different, each can have to do in the other's, but by mutual concession.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Epist. contra Symmachum.

But again, these societies being likewise as naturally independent one on the other, a mutual concession cannot be safely made, without one of them, at the same time, giving up its independency: from whence arises what Grotius, we see, calls manens prælatio: which, in his Fædus inæquale, the more powerful society hath over the less.

Now from these two conclusions, which spring necessarily from the great fundamental article of union, we deduce all the terms, conditions, mutual grants, and concessions, which complete this alliance.

For from this obligation on the church to apply its influence in the service of the state, arise a settled maintenance for the ministers of religion; and an ecclesiastical jurisdiction with coastive power: which things introduce again, on the other side, the dependency of the clergy on the state. And from the state's obligation to support and protest the church, ariseth the ecclesiastical supremacy of the civil magistrate; which again introduceth, on the other hand, the right of churchmen to partake of the legislature.

Thus are all these rights and privileges closely interwoven and mutually connected by a necessary

dependence on each other.

But to be more particular in the grounds and reafons of each grant and privilege, we will now, in a different and more commodious order for this purpose, examine,

I. What the church RECEIVES from the state.

II. What it gives to it.

Which will present us with a new view of the two focieties, as they appear under an establishment; and leave nothing wanting to enable us to form a perfect judgment of their natures.

I. What the church receives from the state by

this alliance, is,

I. First, A public and settled endowment for its ministers. The reasons of it are, 1. To render the religious fociety, whose affistance the state so much wants, more firm and durable. 2. To invite and encourage the clergy's best fervice to the state, in rendering those committed to their care, virtuous, But 3, and principally, in order to destroy that mutual dependency between the clergy and people, which arises from the former's being maintained by the voluntary contributions of the latter; the only maintenance the clergy could have, before the two focieties were allied; and which dependence, we have shewn to be productive of great mischiefs to the state. Add to all this, that as the clergy are now under the magistrate's direction, and consequently become a public order in the state, it is but hit and decent, that the state should provide them with a public maintenance.

2. The second privilege the church receives from this alliance is, a place for her representatives in the legislature. For, as it necessarily follows, (as we thall fee prefently) from that fundamental article of cllience of the state's supporting and protesting the church, that the church must, in return, give up its independency to the state, whereby the state becomes empowered to determine in all church matters, fo far as relates to it as a fociety; as this, I fay, neceffarily follows, the church must needs have its representatives in the legislature, to prevent that power, which the state receives in return for the protection it affords, from being perverted to the church's hurt: for the giving up its independency, without referving a right of representation in the legislature, would be making itself, instead of a subject, a slave to the state. Besides, without

without these representatives no laws could be reafonably made concerning the church: because no free man, or body, can be bound by laws, to which they have not given their consent, either in person, or by representative. So that, as the church when she entered into alliance, cannot justly, we may prefume she did not willingly, give up her independency without the reservation of such a privilege.

3. The third and last privilege is, a jurifdiction, inforced by civil coastive power, for reformation OF MANNERS. It is one of the preliminary articles of this alliance, that the church should apply its best influence in the service of the state. But there is no way in which it can be fo effectually inforced as by a jurisdiction of this kind. It hath been shewn above, that there are a numerous fet of duties, both of imperfett obligation, which civil laws could not reach; and feveral of perfett obligation, which, by reason of the intemperance of the sensual passions, from whence the breach of those duties proceeds, civil laws could not effectually inforce; as their violence yielded only to the influence of religion; both which, however, the good of community requires fhould be inforced; and which an ecclefialtical tribunal, intrusted with coactive power, is only able to inforce. And, indeed, the fense of those wants and defects, which these courts do supply, was the principal motive of the state's seeking this alliance. the other hand, the church having now given up her fupremacy, she would without the accession of this authority, be left naked and defencelefs, and reduced to a condition unbecoming her dignity, and dangerous to her fafety.

II. Let us now fee what the church gives to the state. It is, in a word, this: The resigning up her independency; and making the civil magistrate her supreme head, without whose approbation and allow-

Ĉ 3 ance

ance she can administer, transact, or decree nothing. For as the state, by this alliance, hath undertaken the protection of the church; and as no fociety can fafely afford protection to another over which it hath no power, it necessarily follows that the civil magistrate must be supreme. Besides, when the state, by this convention, covenanted to afford protection to the church, that contract was made to a particular church of one denomination, and of fuch determined doctrine and difcipline. But now, that protection, which might be advantageous to the state in union with such a church, might be disadvantageous to it, in union with one of a different doctrine and discipline: therefore, when protection is given to a church, it must be at the same time provided, that no alteration be made in it, without the state's approbation and allowance. Farther, the state having endowed its clergy, and bestowed upon them a jurisdiction with coastive power, these privileges might create an imperium in imperio, had not the civil magiftrate, in return, the supremacy of the church. The necessity of the thing, therefore, invests him with this right and title.

Thus have we shewn the mutual privileges given and received by church and state, in entering into this samous convention: the aim of the state being, agreeably to its nature, UTILITY; and the aim of the church, agreeably to its nature, TRUTH. From whence we may observe, that as these privileges all took their rise, by necessary inference, from the sundamental article of the convention, which was, that the church should serve the state; and the state protest the church; so they receive all possible addition of strength from their mutual connection with, and dependency on, one another. This we have cause to defire may be received as a certain mark that our plan

of alliance is no precarious arbitrary hypothesis, but a theory, founded in reason, and the invariable nature of things. For having, from the real effence of the two focieties, collected the necessity of allying, and the freedom of the compact; we have, from the necessity, fairly introduced it; and from its freedom, confequentially established every mutual term and condition of it. So that now if the reader should ask, where this charter or treaty of convention for the union of the two societies, on the terms here delivered, is to be met with; we are enabled to answer him. We fay, it may be found in the fame archive with the famous original compact between magistrate and people, fo much infifted on in the vindication of the common rights of subjects. Now, when a fight of this compact is required of the defenders of civil liberty, they hold it fufficient to fay, that it is enough for all the purposes of fact and right, that fuch original compact is the only legitimate foundation of civil fociety: that if there were no fuch thing formally executed, there was virtually: that all differences between magiltrate and people, ought to be regulated on the supposition of such a compas; and all government reduced to the principles therein laid down: for, that the happiness, of which civil fociety is productive, can only be attained, when formed on those principles. Now fomething like this we fay of our ALLIANCE BE-TWEEN CHURCH AND STATE.

Hitherto we have confidered this alliance as it produceth an establishment, under its most simple form; i. e. where there is but one Religion in the state: but it may so happen, that, either at the time of convention, or asterwards, there may be more than one.

1. If there be more than one at the time of convention, the state allies itself with the largest of the reli-C 4 gious gious focieties. It is fit the state should do so, because the larger the religious society is (where there
is an equality in other points) the better enabled it
will be to answer the ends of an alliance; as having
the greatest number under its influence. It is scarce
possible it should do otherwise; because the two societies being composed of the same individuals, the
greatly prevailing religion must have a majority of
its members in the assemblies of state; who will
naturally prefer their own religion to any other.
With this Religion is the alliance made; and a full
TOLERATION given to all the rest; yet under the
restriction of a TEST LAW, to keep them from hurt-

ing that which is oftablished.

2. If these different religions spring up after the alliance hath been formed; then, whenever they become confiderable, a test law is necessary, for the security of the established church. For amongst diverfities of fects where every one thinks itself the only true, or at least the most pure, every one aims at rifing on the ruins of the rest; which it calls, bringing into conformity with itself. The means of doing this, when reason fails, which is rarely at hand, and more rarely heard when it is, will be by getting into the public administration, and applying the civil power to the work. But when one of these Religions is the established, and the rest under a toleration; then envy, at the advantages of an establishment, will join the tolerated churches in confederacy against it, and unite them in one common attack to diffurb its quiet. In this imminent danger, the allies church casis upon the state, for the performance of its contract; which thereupon gives her a TEST-LAW IDT her fecurity: whereby, the entrance into the administration (the only way, the threatened million of is checkled) is shut to all but members of the embalihed church.

Thus

Thus a TEST-LAW took its birth, whether at or after the time of alliance. That the state is under the highest obligations to provide the church with this security, we shall shew,

- 1. By the alliance, the state promised to protect the church, and to secure it from the injuries and insults of its enemies. An attempt in the members of any other church to get into the administration, in order to deprive the established church of the covenanted rights which it enjoys, either by sharing those advantages with it, or by drawing them from it, is highly injurious. And we have shewn that, where there are diversities of religions, this attempt will be always making. The state then must defeat the attempt: but there is no other way of defeating it, than by hindering its enemies from entering into the administration: and they can be hindered only by a test-law.
- 2. Again, this promise of protection is of such a nature as may, on no pretence, be difpenfed with. For protection was not only a condition of alliance, but, on the church's part, the fole condition of it. We have flewn, that all other benefits and advantages are foreign to a church, as fuch, and improper for it. Now the not performing the fole condition of a contract, virtually breaks and diffolves it: especially if we consider that this sole condition is both necessary and just. Necessary; as a free convention must have mutual conditions; and, but for this condition, one fide would be without any: \frac{711/6}{2}, as the convention itself is founded on the laws of nature and nations; and this the only condition which fuits the nature of a church to claim. If it be pretended that debarring good subjects from places of konour and profit, in the disposal of the magistrate, is unjust; I reply, that the affertion, tho' every where taken for granted, is false; it being founded on the principle

principle, that reward is one of the sanctions of civil laws, which I have shewn to be a mistake m, and and that all, a member of fociety can claim, for the discharge of his duty, is protestion. So that, farther reward than this, no subject having a right to, all places of bonour and profit are free donations, and in the absolute disposal of the magistrate.

3. But again, the church, in order to enable the state to perform this fole condition of protection, confented to the giving up its supremacy and independency, to the civil fovereign: whence it follows, that, whenever the enemies of the established church get into the magistrature, to which, as we have faid, the supremacy of the church is transferred by the alliance, she becomes a prey, and lies entirely at their mercy; being now, by the loss of her fupremacy, in no condition of defence, as she was in her natural state, unprotected and independent: fo that the not fecuring her by a test law, is betraying,

and giving her up bound to her enemies.

4. But lastly, had no promise of protection been made, yet the state would have lain under an indispensable necessity of providing a test law, for its own fecurity. It hath been observed, that whereever there are diversities of religion, each sect, believing its own the true, strives to advance itself on the ruins of the rest. If this doth not succeed by dint of argument, these partisans are apt to have recourse to the coercive power of the state: which is done by introducing a party into the public administration. And they have always had art enough to make the state believe that its interests were much concerned in the fuccess of their religious quarrels. What perfecutions, rebellions, revolutions, loss of civil and religious liberty, these intestine struggles

m See Book i. fect. 2.

between fects have occasioned, is well known to fuch as are acquainted with the hiftory of mankind. To prevent these mischies was, as we have shewn, one great motive for the state's feeking alliance with the church: for the obvious remedy was the establishing one church, and giving a free toleration to the reft. But if, in administring this cure, the state should stop short, and not proceed to exclude the tolerated religions from entering into the public administration, such imperfect application of the remedy would infinitely heighten the diftemper: for, before the alliance, it was only a mistaken aim in propagating truth, which occasioned these disorders; but now, the zeal for opinions would be out of measure inflamed by envy and emulation; which the temporal advantages, enjoyed by the established church, exclusive of the rest, will always occasion: And what mischiefs this would produce, had every fect a free entry into the administration, the reader may eafily conceive. If it be faid, that, would men content themselves, as in reason they ought, with enjoying their own opinions, without obtruding them upon others, these evils, which require the remedy of a test law, would never happen. This is very true: and fo, would men but observe the rule of justice in general, there would be no need to have recourse to civil society, to rectify the violations of it.

In a word, an established religion with a test law is the universal voice of Nature. The most savage nations have employed it to civilize their manners; and the politest knew no other way to prevent their return to barbarity and violence.

Thus the city of ATHENS, so humane and free, exacted an oath of all their youth for the security of the established religion: for, Athens being a democracy, every citizen had a constant share in the

administration. A copy of this oath, the strongest of all tests, is preserved by Stobæus, who tranfcribed it from the writings of the Pythagoreans, the great school of ancient politics. It is conceived in these words: "I will not dishonour the sa-" cred arms n, nor defert my comrade in battle: "I will defend and protect my country and "MY RELIGION, whether alone, or in conjunction "with others: I will not leave the public in a "worse condition than I found it, but in a better: "I will be always ready to obey the fupreme ma-"giftrate, with prudence; and to fubmit to the " established laws, and to all such as shall be here-"after established by full consent of the people: "and I will never connive at any other who shall " presume to despise or disobey them; but will re-"venge all fuch attempts on the fanctity of the re-" public, either alone or in conjunction with the "people: and lastly, I will conform to the " NATIONAL RELIGION. So help me those gods "who are the avengers of perjury o."

Here we fee, that after each man had fworn, to defend and protest the religion of his country, in consequence of the obligation the state lies un-

<sup>2</sup> Onle the lower preferred arms, by what follows, feem to there there which the lovers preferred to their favourite youths. Concerning this inflitution, fee what is faid in the explanation of Virgil's epifode of Nifus and Euryalus, in feet iv. of this book.

Ο Ο υ καθαισχυνώ όπλα τὰ διοβ, εδ' ἐγκαθαλείψω τὸν σόχος εὐτόω όπε ὰν ενιχήσω. ΑΜΥΝΩ ΔΕ ΚΑΙ ΥΠΕΡ Ι. ΡΩΝ, κ⟩ ὑπὲς ὁσίων κ⟩ μόνως, κ⟩ μεθὰ ωκλιῶν τὸν σαξείσα ἐξ ἐκ ἐλάσοω σαξαδώσα, σιλείω ὁξ κ⟩ ἀξείω, ώσην ὰν σαξαδίξομαι. κ⟩ δύπκολου τῶν ἀν περίθων ἐμιζείνως, κ⟩ τοῖς δισμιῖς τοῖς δισμένοις σεισωμαι, κ⟩ ἔς τινας αν ἄλλως τὸ ω πόω ἐδερυτη) ὁμι ζείως. κ⟩ ἀν τις ἀναιξή τὸς διερικί ἡ μὴ σείθηθαι, ἐκ ἐπίξειψα, ἀμωωῦ δὲ κ⟩ μόνως, κ⟩ μεθὰ ταιθων κ⟩ ΜΕΡΑ ΤΑ ΠΑΤΡΙΑ ΤΙΜΗΣΩ. Γεριες Θεοὶ τυταν. Joan. Stohαί ἀς Rep. Serm. xli. p. 243. Lugd. Ed. 1608.

der to protect the established worship, he concludes, I will conform to it: the directest and strongest of all tests.

But a test of conformity to the established worship, was not only required of those who bore a share in the civil administration, but of those too who were chosen to preside in their religious rites. Demosthenes hath recorded the oath which the priestesses of Bacchus, called \(\Gamma\_{iemos}^{iemos}\), took on entering into their office. "I observe a religious "chastity, and am clean and pure from all other defilements, and from conversation with man: AND I CELEBRATE THE THEOINEIA AND IO-"BACCHIA TO BACCHUS, ACCORDING TO THE "ESTABLISHED RITES, AND AT THE PROPER "TIMES"."

Nor were the Romans less watchful for the support of the established religion, as may be seen by a speech of the conful Posthumius in Livy, occafioned by fome horrid abuses committed, through the clandestine exercise of foreign worship. "How "often, fays he, in the times of our fathers and " forefathers, hath this affair been recommended " to the magistrates; to prohibit all foreign wor-"fhip; to drive the priefts and facrificers from "the cirque, the forum, and the city; to fearch "up and burn books of prophecies; and to abo-" lifth all modes of facrificing, differing from the "Roman discipline? For those sage and prudent "men, instructed in all kind of divine and human "laws, rightly judged that nothing tended fo " much to overthrow religion, as when men cele-

P 'Αγισόύω, κ) εἰμὶ καθαροὶ, κ) ἀγιὰ ἀπὸ τῶν ἀλλων εἰ καθαρόνόθων, κ) ἀπ' ἀνθεὸς συνεσίας, κὸ τὰ Θεοίνια, κὸ Ἰοδακχεῖα γεεαίξω τῷ Διονόσω ΚΑΤΑ ΤΑ ΠΑΤΡΙΑ, κὸ ἐν τοῖς καθήκεσι χρίνοις. Orat. cont. Newram.

so brated the facred rites, not after their own, but

" foreign, customs q."

But when I fay all regular policied states had an established religion, I mean no more than he would do, who, deducing fociety from its true original, should, in order to persuade men of the benefits it produceth, affirm that all nations had a civil policy. For, as this writer could not be supposed to mean that every one constituted a free state, on the principles of public liberty (which yet was the only fociety he proposed to prove was founded on truth, and productive of public good) because it is notorious, that the far greater part of civil policies are founded on different principles, and abused to different ends; so neither would I be understood to mean, when I fay all nations concurred in making this union, that they all exactly discriminated the natures, and fairly adjusted the rights of BOTH so-CIETIES, on the principles here laid down; tho' an ESTABLISHMENT refulting from this discrimination and adjustment, be the only one I would be supposed to recommend. On the contrary, I know this union hath been generally made on mistaken principles; or, if not fo, hath degenerated by length of time. And as it was fufficient for that writer's purpose, that those societies, good or bad, proved the fense, all men had of the benefits refulting from civil policy in general, tho' they were oft mistaken in the application; so it is sufficient

q Quoties hoc patrum avorumque ætate negotium est magistratibus datum, ut sacra externa sieri vetarent; sacrisculos, vatesque soro, circo, urbe prohiberent; vaticinos libros conquirerent, comburerentque; omnem disciplinam sacriscandi, præterquam more Romano, abolerent? Judicabant enim prudentissimi viri omnis divini humanique juris, nihil æque dissolvendæ religionis esse, quam ubi non patrio, sed externo ritu sacriscaretur. Hist. lib. xxxix.

for ours, that this universal concurrence in the two societies to unite, shews the sense of mankind concerning the utility of such union. And lastly, as that writer's principles are not the less true on account of the general deviation from them in forming civil societies; so may not ours, though so few states have suffered themselves to be directed by them in practice, nor any man, before, delivered them in speculation.

Such then is the *theory* we have offered to the world; of which whoever would fee a full account, and the feveral parts cleared from objections, may confult the treatife mentioned before, intituled, *The alliance between church and state*; in which we pretend to have discovered a plain and simple truth, of the highest concernment to civil fociety, long lost and hid under the learned obscurity arising from the collision of contrary false principles.

But it is now time to proceed with our main subject. We have given a short account of the true nature of the alliance between church and state; both to justify the conduct of the ancient lawgivers in establishing religion; and to shew the infinite service of this institution to civil society. Another use of it may be the gaining an exacter knowledge of the nature of the established religions in the pagan world: for, having the true theory of an establishment, it serves as a straight line to discover all the obliquities to which it is applied.

I shall therefore consider the *causes*, which facilitated the *establishment of religion* in the ancient world: and likewise *those* causes which prevented the

establishment from receiving its due form.

I. Ancient pagan religion confifted in the worthip of local tutelary deities; which, generally speaking, were supposed to be the authors of their civil institutes. The consequence of this was, that

the state, as well as particulars, was the subject of religion. So that this religion could not but be national and established; that is, protected and encouraged by the civil power. For how could that religion, which had the national god for its object; and the state, as an artificial man, for its subject, be other than national and established?

II. But then these very things, which so much promoted an *established religion*, prevented the union's being made upon a just and equitable footing.

1. By giving a wrong *idea* of *civil society*.

2. By

not giving a right form to the religious.

1. It was nothing ftrange, that the ancients should have a wrong idea of civil fociety; and suppose it ordained for the cognizance of religious, as well as civil matters, while they believed in a local tutelary deity, by whose direction they were formed into community; and while they held that society, as such, was the subject of religion, contrary to what has been shewn above, that the civil society's offer of a voluntary alliance with the religious, proceeded from its having no power in itself to inforce the influence of religion to the service of the state.

2. If their religion conflituted a proper fociety, it was yet a fociety dependent on the flate, and therefore not fovereign. Now it appears that no voluntary alliance can be made, but between two independent fovereign focieties. But, in reality, Pagan religion did not conflitute any fociety at all. For it is to be observed, that the unity of the object of faith, and conformity to a formula of dogmatic theology, as the terms of communion, are the great foundation and bond of a religious fociety. Now these things were wanting in the feveral national religions of Paganism: in which

Esce The alliance between church and flate, Book i. § 5.

there was only a conformity in public ceremonies. The national Pagan religion therefore did not properly compose a fociety; nor do we find by antiquity, that it was ever considered under that idea; but only as part of the state; and in that view, indeed, had its particular societies and companies, such as the colleges of priests and

prophets.

These were such errors and desects as destroyed much of the utility, which results from religious establishments, placed upon a right bottom. But yet religious establishments they were; and, notwithstanding all their impersections, served for many great purposes: such as preserving the being of religion: --- bestowing additional veneration on the person of the magistrate, and on the laws of the state: --- giving the magistrate the right of applying the civil esseative power for the resormation of manners. And thus much for establishments.

## SECT. VI.

HE last instance to be assigned of the magifitrate's care of religion, shall be that universal practice, in the ancient world, of religious TOLERATION; or the permitting the free exercise of all religions, how different soever from the national and established. For the' the very nature and terms of an established religion implied the magistrate's peculiar savour and protection; and the' in fact, they had their test laws for its support, wherever there was diversity of worship; yet it was ancient policy to allow a large and full toleration.

Two principal causes induced the ancient law-

givers to this fage and reasonable conduct.

Vol. II. D I. They

I. They confidered that religion feldom or never makes a real impression on the minds of those who are forced into a profession of it: and yet, that all the service religion can do to the state, is by working that real impression. They concluded, therefore, that the profession of religion should be FREE.

Hence may be understood the strange blindness of those modern politicians, who expect to benefit the state by forcing men to outward conformity; which only making hypocrites and atheifts, deftroys the fole means religion hath of ferving the State. But here, by a common fate of politicians, they fell from one blunder to another. For having first, in a tyrannical adherence to their own scheme of policy, or superstitious fondness for the established scheme of worship, infringed upon religious liberty; and then beginning to find, that diversity of Sects was hurtful to the State, as it always will be, while the rights of religion are violated; instead of repairing the mistake, and restoring religious liberty, which would have stifled this pullulating evil in the feed, by affording it no further nourishment, they took the other course; and endeavoured, by a thorough discipline of conformity, violently to rend it away: and with it they rooted up and destroyed all that good to fociety, which fo naturally fprings from religion, when it hath once taken fast hold of the human mind.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In specie autem sictæ simulationis, sicut reliquæ virtutes, ita FIETAS ineise non potest; cum qua simul et sanctitatem et religionem tolli necesse esse quibus sublatis, perturbatio vitæ sequitur et magna consusso. Atque haud scio, an PIETATE adversus deos sublata sides etiam, et societas humani generis, et una excellentissima virtus, justitia tollatur. Cic. De nat. deor. 1. i. c. 2,

II. This was the most legitimate principle they went upon, and had the most lasting effect. They had another, which, tho' lefs ingenuous, was of more immediate influence; and this was the keeping up the warmth and vigour of religious impresfions, by the introduction and toleration of new religions and foreign worship. For they supposed b that "piety and virtue then chiefly influence the " mind while men are bufied in the performance of " religious rites and ceremonies; " as Tully obferves, in the words of Pythagoras, the most celebrated of the Pagan lawgivers. Now vulgar Paganism being not only false, but highly absurd, as having its foundation folely in the fancy and the passions; variety of worships was necessary to fuit every one's taste and humour. The genius of it inclining its followers to be inconstant, capricious, and fond of novelties; weary of long-worn ceremonies, and immoderately fond of new. And in effect we fee amongst the same people, notwith-Randing the universal notion of tutelary deities, that, in this age, one God or mode of worship, in that, another had the vogue. And every new God, or new ceremony, rekindled the languid fire of superstition: just as in modern Rome, every last Saint draws the multitude to his shrine.

For here it is to be observed, that in the Pagan world, a telerated religion did not imply diffention from the established, according to our modern ideas

Siquidem et illud bene dictum est a Pythagora, doctifsimo viro, tum maxime et pietatem et religionem versari in animis, cum rebus divinis operam datemus. De Leg. 1. ii.

C. II.

<sup>•</sup> b Nor does this at all contradict the Roman maxim, as delivered by Posthumius in Livy. [see p.29, 30.] for that maxim relates to public religion, or the religion of the state; this, to private religion, or the religion of perticulars.

of toleration. Nor indeed could it, according to the general nature and genius of ancient idolatry. Tolerated religions were there rather subservient to the established, or supernumeraries of it, than in opposition to it. But then they were far from being on a footing with the established, or partaking of its privileges.

But men going into antiquity under the impreffion of modern ideas, must needs form very inaccurate judgments of what they find. So, in this case, because few tolerated religions are to be met with in Paganism, according to our sense of teleration, which is the allowance of a religion opposed to the national; and confequently, because no one is guarded against with that vigilance which ours demand, but all used with more indulgence than a religion, disavowing the established, can pretend to; on this account, I say, a false opinion hath prevailed, that, in the Pagan world, all kinds of religion ever, upon an equal footing, with regard to the state. Hence, we hear a noble writer perpetually applauding wife antiquity, for the full and free liberty it granted in matters of religion, fo agreeable to the principles of truth and public utility; and, perpetually arraigning the unsociable .umour of CHRISTIANITY for the contrary practice; which, therefore, he would infinuate, was built on contrary principles.

On this account, it will not be improper to confider, a little, the genius of Paganifm, as it is opposed to, what we call, true religion: Which will hew us how eafily the civil magistrate brought about that toleration, which he had fuch great reafons of flate to promote; and at the fame time, teach these objectors to know, that the good ef-

d Sce the Charasterifics, passim.

and

fect of this general tolerance, as far as the genius of religion was concerned in its promotion, was owing to the egregious falfhood and abfurdity of Paganifm: and that, on the other hand, the evil effects of intelerance under the Christian religion, proceeded from its truth and perfection; not the natural confequence, as these men would infinuate, of a false principle, but the abuse of a true one.

Ancient Paganism was an aggregate of several distinct religions, derived from so many pretended revelations. Its abounding in these, proceeded in part from the great number of Gods of human invention. As these religions were not laid on the soundation, so neither were they raised on the destruction of one another. They were not laid on the foundation of one another; because, having given to their Gods, as local tutelary deities, contrary natures

<sup>·</sup> See Book iv. - Nay, fo fond were they of this notion, of local tutelary deities, that they degraded even Jupiter himfelf, their Faiher of gods and ruen, into one of them, as appears by his feveral appellations of Jupiter Ammon, Olympicus, Capitolinus, etc. This deceived Dr. Bentley, who finding Jupiter, in the popular theology, to be a local deity, concluded him no: to be one but many. So that in the last edition of his Remarks on that foolith book, called A discourse of free-thinking, he reproves the translator of Lucan for calling Jupiter Ammon, this greatest of the gods, this mighty chief: - "A Roman would newer have faid that Jufpiter Ammon was as great as Juppiter " Capitalinus; the translator took it for granted that all Jap-" piters must needs he the same. But a known passage in Suc-"tonius may correct his notion of the heathen theology. --- Au-" gustus had built a temple to Jufpiter Tonans, within the acea "of the capitol: whereupon he had a dream, that Cafitalians " Juppiter complained his worthipers were drawn away: Au-"gullus, in his dream, answered, that he had dedicated To-"nans there, only as the other's porter; and accordingly, "when he waked, he hung (us a porter's badge) that temple " round with bells. - Now if Capitolines would not bear the " very Thunderer by him, but in quality of his porter; much " less would be have suffered poor begganly Anonen for all

and dispositions, and distinct and separate interests, each God set up upon his own bottom, and held

"he was his name-sake) to be styled the mighty chief." p. 281. Here he had one poet to contradict; who "thought (he says) if all Jupiters the same." When he wrote his notes on Milton he had another on his hands, who, it seems, did not think them the same, and he contradicts him likewise.

"Ammonian Jove, or Capitoline, was feen "He with Olympias, this with her who bore

"Scipio — Par. Loft, Book ix. y 508.

On which, the critic observes with some contempt — "Then "he brings more stories — and (fomething strange) Two Jupi-"ters." However in his former humour he will have it, that according to the popular theology "all Jupiters were not the "fame." This will deferve to be confidered. The ancients, in excess of folly and flattery, were sometimes wont to worship their good kings and benefactors under the name of Jutiter, the Father of gods and men, who, by thus lending his titles, received, in a little time, from posterity all that worship which was first paid to the borrowers of his name; all their particular benefactors being swallowed up in him. And this was one principal reason of Jupiter's being a twiclary deity. But the philosophers, searching into the original of the Pagan theology, found out this lost fecret, That their kings had given occasion to the worship of this local tutelary Jupiter; whom, therefore, they regarded, as different Jupiters; that is, as so many kings who had affumed his name. Hence Varro in Tertullian reckons up no less than three hundred. The result of all this was, that in the popular theology there was but one Jupiter; in the philosophic history there were many. Just, as on the contrary, in the popular mythology there were many Gods; in the philosophic physiology, but one.

What shall we say then to the story from Suetonius, which is brought to prove that, according to the popular theology, all Jupiters were not the same? But surely the Romans regarded the Capitoline Jupiter, and the Thunderer as the same person: if it be asked, Why they had different names? Suetonius will inform us: who relates that Augustus confectated this temple to Jupiter Tonans, on his being preserved from a dreadful stash of lightning, in his Cantabrian expedition. And so Minucius Felix understood the matter, where he thus addresses the Pagan idolaters:—Quid ipselfuriter vester? modo imberbis statuitur, modo baibatus locatur: & cum Hammon dicitur, habet corqua; et cum Capitolinus, tunc gerit sulmina." Cap. 21.

little in common with the rest. They were not raised on the destruction of one another; because, as

And Eusebius, who was perfectly well acquainted with the Pagan theology, fays expresly, that Ammon was one of the Surnames of Jupiter --- έτι δε Δία τον υπό τινων ΑΜΜΩΝΑ σερσαγρεδούμθρον. Prap. Evang. 1. iii. c. 3. However, this must be confessed, that Capitolinus and Tonans appear to Augustus in a dream, as two different persons, and are so considered by him when awake. The true folution of the difficulty is this: The Pagans worshiped their gods under a material visible image. And their statues, when confecrated, were supposed to be informed by an intelligence, which the God, to whose worship they were erected, fent into them, as his vicegerent. See Mede's Works, B. iii. ch. 5. This general notion furnished Lucian with a very pleasant incident in his Jutiter Tragicus, who calling a grand fynod of the gods, is made to fummon all those of gold, filver, ivory, stone, and copper. Now, in Augustus's dream, it was the intelligence, or vicegerent in the statue of Jupiter Capitolinus, that complained of his new brother, in that of Tonans, as getting all the custom from him. This being the whole of the mystery, Jupiter's popular unity remains unshaken.

But what shall we say to the critic? He censures Row, for not saying what Milton had said; and afterwards Milton for not saying what Row had said: and is yet so unlucky as to be doubly mistaken. The case is this, Where Milton speaks of two Jupiters, he is delivering the sense of the philosophers; where Row says there is but one, he is delivering the sense of the people; and both were right. But the critic being in a contradicting humour will have both to be in the

wrong.

Denique et antequam commerciis orbis pateret, & antequam gentes ritus suos moresque miscerent, unaqueque natio conditorem suum, aut ducem inclytum, aut reginam pudicam sexu suo fortiorem, aut alicujus muneris vel artis repertorem venerabatur, ut civem bonæ memoriæ. Sic et defunctis præmium, et suturis dabatur exemplum. Minne. Fel. c. xx. Hence may be seen the falshood, both in sad and right, of the soundation-principle of the book called — The grounds and reassure of the Christian religion; that "it was a commen and necessary method for "new revelations to be built and grounded on precedent re-"velations." Chap. iv. p. 20---26. See this position constuted more at large in the second vol. of the Div. Leg. Book vi. sect. vi.

hath been observed, the several religions of Paganism did not consist in matters of belief, and a dogmatic theology, in which, where there is a contrariety, religions destroy one another; but in matters of practice, in rites and ceremonies; and in these, a contrariety did no harm. For having given their gods different natures and interests, where was the wonder if they clashed in their commanded rites; or if their worshipers should think, this no mark of their false pretensions?

These were horrible defects in the very essence of Pagan theology: and yet from these would neceffarily arise an universal toleration: for each religion admitting the other's pretentions, there must needs be a perfect harmony and INTERCOMMUNI-TY gamongst them; no room being left for any other difputes, but whose God was most powerful; except where, by accident, it became a question between two nations inhabiting the same country, who was truly the TUTELAR deity of the place. As once we are told happened in Egypt, and broke out into a religious war:

5 Julian makes this the distinguishing character of the Pagan religion. For, writing to the people of Alexandria, and upbraiding them for having forfaken the religion of their country, the Emperor, in order to aggravate the charge, infinuates them to be guilty of ingratitude, as having forgotten those happy times when all Egypt avershiped the gods IN COMMON, - ig ex eisέξχείαι μυτμη το σαλαιάς υμάς έκειτης ευδαιμινίας, ήνικα ήν ΚΟΙΝΩ-Ν!Αμω σεός Θεες Αλγύπων τη σαση, σολλών δε απελαύομεν αγαθών. And, in his book against the Christian religion, he says, there were but two commands in the decalogue, that were peculiar to the Jews, and which the Pagans would not own to be reasonable, namely, the observation of the Sabbath, and the knowing no other gods but the Creator of all things. How is is (fays he) σερίς τ Gεων έξω τυ, Cu σερσκιμήσεις Θερίς έτέρηις, η τδ, Μνήδη. τως σαθθατων, δ μη τὰς ἀλλας είθαι χώραι ζυλατίων εθιλας. Αρ. S. Cyril. cont. Julian. 1. v. The fre Cause of all things, we fee, was acknowledged by the Gentile Sages: what fluck with them was the not worshiping other gods in common. Inde

Inde furor vulgo, quod numina vicinorum Odit uterque locus, cum solos credit habendos Este deos, quos ipse colit h.

Here the question was not, which of the two worshiped a phantom, and which a God, but whose

God was the tutelar God of the place.

But from this instance a noble author would perfuade us i, that intolerance was of the very nature and genius of the Egyptian theology, from whence all Paganism arose. "The common heathen reli-" gion (fays he) was supported chiefly from that fort " of enthuliasm, which is raised from the external " objects of grandeur, majesty, and what we call "august. On the other hand, the Egyptian or "Syrian religions, which lay most in mystery " and concealed rights, having less dependance on the "magistrate, and less of that decorum of art, po-" liteness, and magnificence, ran into a more pu-" fillanimous, frivolous, and mean kind of fuper-"fition: the observance of days, the forbearance " of meats, and the contention about traditions, " feniority of laws, and priority of godships.

"Summus utrimque

"Inde furor vulgo, etc k.

Well might he say, he suspected "that it would be urged against him, that he talked at random and without book "." For the very contrary of every thing he here says, is the truth. And his supposing the Egyptian and Syrian religions had less dependence on the magistrate than the Roman; and that the Egyptian, and Syrian (as he is pleased to call the Jewish) were the same, or of a like genius, is such an instance of his knowledge

h Juvenal, Sat. xv. i Cheracteristics, vol. iii. Miscel. 2. k Vol. iii. p. 41, 1 P. 82.

or ingenuity, as is not easily to be equalled. However, since the noble writer hath made such use of the Satirist's relation, as to infinuate that the Ombites and Tentyrites, acted in the common spirit and genius of the Egyptian theology, and became the model of *intolerance* to the Jewish and Christian world, it may not be amiss to explain the true original of these religious squabbles as antiquity itself hath told the story: whereby it will appear, they had their birth from a very particular and occasional setch of civil policy, which had no dependence on the general superstition of the Pagan world.

The inftance ftands almost fingle in antiquity. This would incline one to think that it arose from no common principle: and if we enquire into the nature of the Egyptian theology, it will appear impossible to come from that. For the common notion of local and tutelary deities, which prevents all intolerance, was originally, and peculiarly, Egyptian, as will be feen hereafter. It may then be asked how this mischief came about? I believe a passage in Diodorus Siculus, as quoted by Eufebius, will inform us. A certain king of Egypt finding some cities in his dominions apt to plot and cabal against him, contrived to introduce the distinct worship of a different animal into each city; as knowing that a reverence for their own, and a neglect of all others, would foon proceed to an exclusion, and fo bring on fuch a mutual aversion, as would never suffer them to unite in one common defign. Thus was there at first, as little of a religious war on the principles of intolerance in this affair of the Ombites and Tentyrites, as in a drunken squabble between two trading companies in the church of Rome about their patron faints. But Diodorus deserves to be heard in his own words: who when he had delivered the fabulous accounts of the original of brute-worship subjoins what he supposed to be the true. "But forme give another original of the worship of brute animals: for the several cities being formerly prone to rebellion, and to enter into conspiracies against monarchical government, one of their kings contrived to introduce into each city the worship of a different animal: so that while every one reverenced that which itself held sacred, and despised what another had consecrated; they could hardly be brought to join cordially together in one common design, to the disturbance of the government "."

Τ΄ Α΄ τίας δε κὸ άλλας φασί τινες της τὰ ἀλόγων ζώων τιμης τε γάς σλάθες τὸ σαλαιὸν ἀφιταμβέε τῶν βασιλέων, κζ συμφορινενίο κίς τὸ μηχέτι βασιλεύεσθαι, έπινοησαί τινα διάφορα σεβάσμαΐα αύτος, των ζωων σαςασχεί, όπως έκας ων τὸ μὲν σας αὐτοῖς τιμώμενον σεβομένων τη θε σαρά τοις αλλοις αφιεςωμένη καλαφουήνων, μηδεποίε ομονοήσαι δυρωθαι ταθες οι κατ' Alyonlov. Euseb. Præp. Ewang. p. 32. Rob. Steph. ed. Plutarch gives us an account of another of these squabbles (if indeed it was not the same with Juvenal's) which happened much about the same time, between the Oxyrynchitæ and the Cynopolitæ; and confirms what is here faid of the original of this mutual hatred. — "Αλλοι δε τωνδε των δεινών τινα κή τανέργων βασιλέων ίτος έτι, του Αίγυπίως καλαμαθόνλα τη μέν φύσει κέφες ή σερὸς με ωθολίω κὰ νεωθερισμον όξυξέσπες όνθας, άμαχον οξ κὰ δυσκαθεκίου υπό σλήθες δύναμιν εν τῷ σωφεριείν κὸ κοινοπραγείν έχοιτας, αίθιον αύτοῖς έν καλαστορά δείξανλα δεισιθαιμονίαν διαφορά; απαύς ει τος οφασιν' των γαρ βηρίων α τις οσέταξεν αλλοις άλλα τιμον κο σεθεσθαι δυσμενώς κο πολεμικώς αλλήλοις προσφερομένων, κο γεοφήν έτεραν έτερες προσίεθαι πεφυκύτας, αμύνοθας απί τοις είκειοις έκας οι η χαλεπώς αδικόμενοι φέρονες, ελάνθανον την τών θηρίων "χθραις συτελαίμενοι η συνεκπολεμέμενοι πρός άλλήλες μόνοι γάρ έτι ιου Αίγυπίων Λυκοπιλίται σεροβαίου ἐσθίθσιν, ἐπεὶ κὰ λύκων, ἐν θεὸν νομίζεσιν οἱ δὲ Ὀξυςυίχιται καθ΄ ήμας τῶν Κυνοπιλίτων τὸν ἀξύευίχον ίχθιω έσθιόν αν, κιώας συλλαβόνθες κή θύσανθες, ώς ίερεῖον καίεφαγον εκ δε τύτε καθας άνες είς σύλεμον, άλληλες την διέθηκαν κακώς, κή ύπερον υπό Γωμαίων πολαζόμενος διεθέθησαν. Περί ΙΣ. κή ΟΣ. 676, 677. Steph. ed.

But to return: fuch then was the root and foundation of this sociability of religion in the ancient world, fo much envied by modern infidels. The effect of their abfurdities, as Religions; and of their imperfections, as Societies. Yet had univerfal custom made this principle of intercommunity, fo effential to Paganism, that when their philosophers and men of learning, on the spreading of Christianity, were become ashamed of the groffness of polytheism, and had so refined it by allegorical interpretations of their mythology, as to make the feveral Pagan deities but the various attributes of the one only God; they still adhered to their darling principle (for Paganism still continued to be without a dogmatic theology, or formulary of faith) and contended that this diversity was harmony, a musical discord, well pleasing to the God of heaven and earth. "It is but reasonable for us " (fays Symmachus ") to fuppose, that it is one and " the fame BEING whom all mankind adores. We " behold the fame stars; we live under the influ-"ence of one common heaven; we are incom-" passed by the same universe. What matters it, "what device each man uses in his search after "truth? ONE road is plainly too narrow to lead " us into the initiation of fo GRAND A MYSTERY." "The great lord and governor of the earth (fays "Themistius) seems to be delighted with these "diversities of religions. It is his will that the "Syrians worship him one way, the Greeks ano-ther, and the Egyptians yet another"." The

'ω' το κατά το του του του που που του του του κατορού ("Αξυνικότιω"). Teader

<sup>&</sup>quot; Æquum eß, gelegold emnes colunt unum putari; eadem spectamus asia; commune colum est; idem nos mundus involvit: Quid interés qui quisque prodentia verum requirat? uno itimere non potes perveniri au tem grande sucretum. Lib. x. Ep. 61. ad Valut. These, et Arc. A. Logg.

reader fees that the foundation of this way of thinking, was the old principle of intercommunity in the worship of local tutelary deities. But, what is remarkable, it appears even to this day, to be effential to Paganism. Bernier tells us, that the Gentiles of Hindoustan defended their religion against him in this manner: "They gave me "(fays he) this pleafant answer; that they did " not at all pretend that their law was universal -"that they did not in the least suspect that ours "was false: it might, for what they knew, be a "good law for us, and that God MAY HAVE " MADE MANY DIFFERENT ROADS TO LEAD TO "HEAVEN; but they would by no means hear "that ours was general for the whole world, and "tbeirs, a mere fable and invention P." Bernier indeed speaks of this as a peculiar whimfy that had

άλλως Σύρυς ἐθέλει θρησκούειν, άλλως Έλληνας, άλλως Αἰγυπίιες. Orat. XII.

P Ils me donnoient cette response affez plaisante; qu'ils ne pretendoient pas que leur Loi fût universelle - qu'ils ne pretendoient point que la nôtre fût fausse; qu'il se pouvoit faire qu'elle fut bonne pour nous, et que DIEU POUVOIT AVOIR FAIT PLUSIEURS CHEMINS DIFFERENS POUR ALLER AU CIEL: mais ils ne veulent pas entendre que la nôtre tant generale pour toute la terre, la leur ne peut être que fable et que pure invention. Voyages de Fr. Bernier, tom. ii. p. 138. Friar William de Rubruquis, a French Minorite, who travelled into Tartary in the year 1253, tells us, c. xliii. that Mangu Chan, Emperor of Tartary, talking to him of religion, faid, "That " a God hath given unto the hand divers fingers, so he hath " given many ways to men to come unto him; he hath giv-"en the Scriptures unto you; but he hath given unto us "foothfayers, and we do that which they bid us, and we live "in peace." The Jesuit Tachard tells us, that the king of Siam made much the same answer to the French embassador, who moved him, in his mafter's name, to embrace the Christian religion - Je m'etonne que le roy de France mon bon and s'interesse si fort dans une affaire qui regarde Dieu, où il semble que Dieu même ne prenne aucune interest, et qu'il a entierement laissé à notre discretion. Car ce vray Dieu, entered

entered the head of this Brachman. But had he been as conversant in history and antiquity, as he was in modern philosophy, he would have known that this was a principle which accompanied Paganism thro' all its stages.

Let us now fee the nature and genius of those religions which were built, as we fay, on true revelation. The first is the Jewish; in which was taught the belief of one God, the maker and governor of all things, in contradiftinction to all the false gods of the Gentiles: which necessarily introduced a DOGMATIC THEOLOGY. So that the followers of this religion, if they believed it true, in the fense it was delivered to them, must needs believe all others to be false. But it being instituted only for themselves, they had, directly, no further to do with that falshood, than to guard themselves

qui a créé le ciel et la terre et toutes les creatures qu'on y voit et qui leur a donné des natures et des inclinations si differentes, ne pouvoit-il pas, s'il eût voulu, en donnant aux hommes des corps et des ames semblables, leur inspirer les mêmes sentimens pour la religion qu'il faloit suivre, et pour la culte qui luy étoit le plus agreable, et faire naître tontes les nations dans une même loy? Cet ordre parmi les hommes et cette unité de religion dependant absolument de la Providence divine, qui pouvoit aussi aisement introduire dans le monde que la diversité des fectes qui s'y font etablies de tout tems; ne doit-on pas croire que le vray Dieu prend autant de plaisir à estre honore par des cultes et des ceremonies differentes, qu'à estre glorissé par une prodigieuse quantité de creatures qui le louent chacune à sa maniere? Cette beauté et cette varieté que nous admirons dans l'ordre naturelle, seroient elles moins admirables dans l'ordre furnaturel, ou moins dignes de la fagesse de Dieu? Voyage de Siam, 1. v. p. 231, 232. Amst. ed. 1688. The Abbé de Choifi, a coadjutor in this embassy, tells us, that the people were in the same way of thinking with their king. ----Jusques ici ils [les missionnaires] n'ont pas fait grand chose dans le royaume de Siam. Les Siamois sont des esprits doux, qui n'aiment pas à disputer, et qui croyent la plûpart de toutes les religions sont bonnes. Journal du Voyage de Siam, p. 200. ed. Amit. 1688. from

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from the contagion of it, by holding no fellowship or communion with the Gentiles.

Yet fo ftrong was this general prejudice of intercommunity, that all the provisions of the Law could not keep this brutal people from running into the idolatries of the nations: for their frequent defections, till after the Babylonish captivity, were no other than the joining foreign worship to the worship of the God of Israel.

After this religion, comes the Christian, which taught the belief of the same God, the supreme Cause of all things: and being a revelation, like the other, from heaven, must needs be built upon that other; or on the supposition of its truth. And, as this latter was not national, like the other, but given to all mankind, For that reafon, but especially for some others, which will be fully confidered in their place, it had a MORE COM-PLETE fystem of dogmatic theology. The confequence of which was, that its followers must not only think Paganism salse, and Judaism abolished, and fo refuse all fellowship and communion with both; but must endeavour to propagate their religion throughout the world, on the destruction of all the reft. And their dogmatic theology teaching them that Truth, and not utility 9, (as the Pagans, who had only public rites and ceremonies, fupposed) was the end of religion; it was no wonder, their aversion to falshood should be proportionably increased. And so far all was right. But this averfion, cherished by piety, unhappily produced a blind, ungovernable zeal; which, when arguments failed, hurried them on to all the unlawful exercise of force

<sup>9</sup> For this the reader may fee Dion. Harlicarnaffeus's difcourfe of the religion which Romulus introduced in his republic; and for his reafon, fee Book iii. and iv.

and compulsion. Hence the evils of persecution, and the violation of the laws of humanity, in a fond passion for propagating the law of God.

This is a true representation of the state of things, both in the Pagan, and in the believing world. To give it the utmost evidence, we will

r M. Voltaire, in his Le Siecle de Louis XIV, having spoken of this perfecuting spirit amongst the followers of Christ, and obferved that it was unknown to Paganism, says very gravely that after having long fearched for the cause of this difference between the two religions, both of which abounded with dogmatiffs and fanatics, he at length found it in the REPUBLICAN SPIRIT of the latter. - This was only mistaking the effect for the cause; and was no great matter in a writer, who in the same place can tell us, not as problematical, but as a known and acknowledged truth, that both the Jews and Gentiles offered HUMAN facrifices. — Cette fureur fut inconnuë au Paganisme. Il couvrit la terre de ténébres, mais il ne l'arrosa gueres que du fang des animaux; et si quelquesois CHEZ LES Juifs, et chez les Paiens on devoua des victimes humaines, ces devoumens, ne causérent point de guerres civiles. - l'AI RE-CHERCHE LONG-TEMS comment et pourquoi cet esprit dogmatique qui divisa les ecoles de l'antiquité paienne sans causer le moindre trouble, en a produit parmi nous de si horribles. Ne pourrait-on pas trouver peut-être l'origine de cette nouvelle pelle qui a ravagé la terre, DANS L'ESPRIT REPUBLICAIN qui anima les premieres églifes. Tom. ii. chap. 32. Du Calviviline, p. 223. What is strange is, that he should ramble thus when he had the true cause almost in view, as he certainly had when he made the following observation: La religion des Païens ne confistait que dans la morale et dans des sites. The question is, how he came by the observation? and how the Christians came by their republican spirit? The latter question only is worth an answer. And we say, that without doubt it was the SPIRIT OF THEIR RELIGION which gave it to them, when the followers of Paganifin had it not. Christianity confills in the belief of certain propolitions necessary to falvation; which peculiarity virtually condemns all other religions. So that these having the civil power on their side, would endeavour to suppress so inhospitable a novelty. And this directly violating conscience, produced the retublican spirit, or the spirit of refillance; whose natural aim goes no further than liberty; not to deminion. Agreeably hereto, as is observed above, the first perfecution for religion was borne, not inflicted, by the Christian church.

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next confider the reception true religion met with amongst idolaters.

The Pagan world having early imbibed this inveterate prejudice concerning intercommunity of worship, men were but too much accustomed to new revelations, when the Jewish appeared, not to acknowledge its fuperior pretences. Accordingly we find by the history of this people, that it was esteemed a true one by its neighbours. And therefore they proceeded, in their usual way, to join it, on occasion, with their own: as those did, whom the king of Affyria fent into the cities of Israel in the place of the ten tribes. Whereby it happened (fo great was the influence of this principle) that in the fame time and country, the Jews of Jerusalem added the Pagan idolatries to their religion; while the Pagans of Samaria added the Jewish religion to their idolatries.

But when these people of God, in consequence of having their dogmatic theology more carefully inculcated to them after their return from the captivity, became rigid in pretending not only that their religion was true, but the only true one; then it was, that they began to be treated by their neighbours, and afterwards by the Greeks and Romans, with the utmost hatred and contempt for this their inhumanity and unfociable temper. To this cause alone we are to ascribe all that spleen and rancour which appears in the histories of these latter nations concerning them. Celfus fairly reveals what lay at bottom, and speaks out for them all: "If the "Jews on these accounts adhere to their own law, "it is not for that, they are to blame: I rather " blame those who forsake their own country reli-"gion to embrace the Jewish. But if these people " give themselves airs of sublimer wisdom than the " rest of the world, and on that score resuse all

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"I must tell them that it is not to be believed that they are more dear, or agreeable to God, than other nations"." Hence, amongst the Pagins, the Jews came to be distinguished from all other people by the name of Genus Hominum invisum deis", and with good reason".

This was the reception the Jews met with in the world: but not pretending to obtrude their religion on the rest of mankind, as it was given properly to the posterity of Abraham, they yet for the

most part escaped persecution.

When Christianity arose, tho' on the foundation of Judaism, it was at first received with great complacency by the Pagan world. For they were such utter strangers to the idea of one religion's being built, or dependent on another, that it was a long time before they knew this connection between them. Even Celsus himself, with all his sufficiency, saw so little how this matter stood, that he was not satisfied whether the Jews and Christians worshiped the same God; was sometimes inclined to think they did not. This ignorance, which the propagators of our religion were not too forward to remove w, for fear of hindering the pro-

Εί μὲν δη κτ ταῦτα πθετέλλοιν Ἰθοαῖοι τ ἴδιον νόμον, ἐ μεμπλὰ αὐτῶν ἐκείνων δὶ μῶλλον τῶν καλαλιπόιλων τὰ σφέτεςα, κὴ τὰ Ἰεδαίων περοπτειμένων εἰ δ΄ ὧι τι σοφωτεςον εἰδότες σεμκιώνδαι τε, κὴ τὴν ὰλλιν κοινινιαν ἐκ ἐξ ἴσυ καθαρῶν ἀποτεξέρολαι — ἐ μὴν ἐδ΄ δύδικνν τὰ παρὰ τῷ θεῷ κὴ τέςγεσθαι ဪαρθόςως τι τῶν ἄλλων τάτες εἰκος.

Οιία coni. Celhon, 1. v. p. 259.

Γαcit. Hɨβ. l. v. See Note (†) p. 55.

To this old Pagan blindness, some modern Christians, seem to have succeeded. They pretend, that what is faid in Scripture of the dependency and foundation of Christianity on Judaism, is said by way of accommodation to the prejudices of the lews; but that when the preachers of the Gospel applied themselves to the Gentiles, they preached up Jeius simply,

gress of the Gospel, prevented the prejudice, the Pagans had to Judaism, from indisposing them to Christianity. So that the Gospel was favourably heard. And the superior evidence, with which it was inforced, inclined men, long habituated to pretended Revelations, to receive it into the number of the established. Accordingly we find one Roman emperor introducing it amongst his closet religions\*; and another proposing to the senate\*, to give it a more public entertainment \*y. But when it was found to carry

as a divine meffenger, omitting the Jewish characters of the Messiah. Now, though nothing can be more false, or extravagant; yet the method employed by the first Preachers of the Gospel, to introduce Christianity amongst the Gentiles, gives this foolish opinion the little countenance it hath.

\* Alexander Severus. Lampridii c. 29,

\* Tiberius retulit ad senatum ut INTER CETERA SACRA reciperetur. Hier. This, the Father says on the authority of Tertullian and Eusebius. M. Le Clerc, in his Hist. Eccl. ann. xxix. rejects the whole story, tho' it be as strongly supported as a civil sact can well be. What he urges against it is fully obviated by the principles here delivered. Indeed the chief torce of his objection arises from several sale additions to the sact: A circumstance, which may be found in, and hath been brought

to the discredit of, the best attested facts of antiquity.

The not attending to the genius of Paganism, hath betrayed some of the best Critics into an iniquitous judgment on the first Apologists; who, they pretend, have unskilfully managed, in employing all their pains to evince what was so easy to be done, the falshood of Paganisin, rather than to prove the truth of their own religion. For, fay these critics, was Paganism proved false, it did not follow that Christianity was true; but was the Christian religion proved true, it followed that the Pagan was false. But the matter, we see, was just otherwise; and the Apologists acted with much good judgment. The truth of Chriflianity was acknowledged by the Pagans: they only wanted to have the compliment returned. As this could not be done, there was a necessity to assign the reasons of their resulal. And this gave birth to fo many confutations of idolatrous worship. It is true, when their adversaries found them persist in their unfociable pretences, they paid this harsh treatment in kind; and accused Christianity, in its turn, of falshood: but this was not ITS F. 2 Vol. II.

its pretensions higher \*, and to claim, like the Jewish, the title of the only true one, then it was that it began to incur the same hatred and contempt with the Jewish. But when it went still further, and urged a necessity for all men to forsake their national Religions, and embrace the Gospel, this so shocked the Pagans, that it soon brought upon itself the bloody storms which followed. Thus you have the true origin of persecution for religion: (tho' not of the intolerant principle, as we shall see before we come to the end of this section.) A persecution not committed, but undergone, by the Christian church.

till afterwards, and then faintly, and only by way of acquit. For want of due reflection on these things, both Faericius and L'enfant have been betrayed into this wrong judgment. Facilius subscribo judicio viri celeberrimi atque eruditissimi Jacobi L'enfant, in Diario Londinensi, Hist. of the works of the learned, A. 1709. p. 284. Il y a long tems, qu'on a eu lieu de remarquer, que la religion Chrétienne est une bonne cause, qui de tout tems a été sujette à être aussi mal desendue, que mal attaquée. Ses premiers apologistes la soûtinrent mieux par leur zèle, par leur pieté, et par leurs sous sous que par les Apologies, qu'ils nous en ont laissées.—Delectus argum. et syllabus script. qui relig. Christ. asser. p. 209.

\* This was not underflood immediately by the Pagans, as appears from a remarkable passage of Lampridius in his life of Alexander Severus—Christo templum facere voluit [Alex. Severus] eumque inter deos recipere—Sed prohibitus est ab iis qui, consulentes facra, repererant omnes Christianos futuros si id optato evenisse, et templa reliqua deserenda. Now those who rested this conclusion on an oracle, or divine premonition, could

have no knowledge of the nature of Christianity.

<sup>2</sup> The reader will not be displeased to hear a curious story, from the life of St. Anscharius, which tends much to illustrate what we say, cencerning the genius of Paganism, and the reason of its aversion to Christianity. This Saint travelling amongst the people of the North, fell into the following adventure: — Pervenit ad Byrcam, ubi invenit regem et multitudinem populi nimio errore confusam. Instigante enim Diabolo, contigit, eo ipso tempore, ut quidam illo adveniens di-

Hence

Hence we see how it happened, that such good emperors as Trajan and M. Antonine came to be found in the first rank of persecutors. A difficulty that hath very much embarassed the enquirers into ecclesiastical antiquity; and given a handle to the Deists, who emposson every thing, of pretending to suspect that there must be something very much amiss in primitive Christianity, while such wise magistrates could become its persecutors. But now the reason is manifest: the Christian pretences overthrew a fundamental principle of Paganism, which they thought sounded in nature; namely, the friendly intercommunity of worship. And thus the samous passage of Pliny the younger becomes intelligible. "For I did not in the least

ceret, se in conventu degrum, qui iplam terram possilere credebantur adfuisse, et ab iis missum, ut hæc regi et populis nuntiaret: Vos, inquiunt, nos vobis propitios dia habuistis, et terram incolatus veftri cum multa abundantia nostro adjutorio in pace et prosperitate longo tempore tenuitis. Vos quoque nobis facrificia et vota debita perfolvistis. At nunc et sacrificia folita fubtrahitis, et vota spontanca segnius offertis, et, quod in igis nobis displicet, alienum deum super vos introducitis. Si itaque nos vohis propitios habere vultis, facrificia omisfa auget. et vota majora periolvite. Alterius quoque dei culturam, que contraria nobis docetur, ne apud vos recipiatis, et ejus fervitio ne intendatis. Porro si etiam plures deos Labore desideracis, es vobis non sufficients. Evicum quondam regem vesteum nos uvanimes in collegium restruct addissimus, at sit unus de numero Demum Mabillon A&, SS, Ord, S, Bened, Sæc, iv. p. 2. And how little these Pagans doubted of Christianity's being a real revelation from a God, we may fee in another place of the fame Life, where one of their piratical kings proposes, according to their cuitom, to enquire by divination what place they should next invade: - Interim rex prefatus cum D nis age e copit, ut forte perquirerent, utum voluntate deorum locus li ie ab eis devastandus eiset. Multi, inquit, ibi sunt dir potentes et magni, ibi etiam olim ecclesia constructa est, et cultura Christi à multis Christianis ibi excolitur, qui sortissimus est Decrum, et poteil sperantibus in se quomodo vulc auxiliari - Quæstum est igicur fortibus, etc. Cap. mi.

"hesitate, but that whatever should appear, on confession, to be their faith, yet that their fro-"wardness and inflexible obstinacy would certainly " deserve punishment 2." What was this inflexible obstinacy? It could not be in professing a new religion: that was a thing common enough. It was the refufing all communion with Paganism; refusing to throw a grain of incense on their altars. For we must not think, as is commonly imagined, that this was at first enforced by the magistrate to make them renounce their religion; but only to give a test of its hospitality and sociableness of temper. It was indeed, and rightly, understood by the Christians to be a renouncing their religion; and fo, accordingly, abstained from. The misfortune was, that the Pagans did not confider this inflexibility as a mere error, but as an immorality likewife. The unsociable, uncommunicable temper, in matters of religious worship, was esteemed, by the best of them, as a batred and aversion to mankind. Tacitus, speaking of the burning of Rome: "Haud " perinde in crimine incendii quam odio hu-"MANI GENERIS convicti funt a [Christiani]." Convicted, he fays, of bate to all mankind. But how? The confession of the Pagans themselves, concerning the purity of the Christian morals, shews this could be no other than a conviction of their rejecting all intercommunity of worship; which, fo great was their prejudice, they thought could proceed from nothing but bate to mankind. The like character the same historian gives of the Jews: "Apud ipfos FIDES ODSTINATA, fed ad-

\* Ann. zv. Sect. 44.

Neque enim dubitabam, qualecunque esset quod saterentur, certe, pertinaciem et instenibilem alpinationera debere puniri. Lib. x. Ep. 97.

"versus omnes alios hostile odium b." Now the Jews and Christians had nothing in common but this unsociable uncommunicable temper in religious matters, this obstinata sides which gave so much offence to Paganism. We are not to imagine, these excellent Pagan moralists so blind as not to fee all the merit of a firm and fixed resolution of keeping a good conscience. They did see and own it, as appears by the famous " Justum "et tenacem propositi virum," etc. of one of their moral poets. But, unluckily for truth, they did not see the pervicacia et inflexibilis obstinatio of the Christians in that light. Tho' it was nothing more than fuch a fixed resolution, as one who most severely cenfured them for it, the good emperor Marcus Antoninus, fairly confesses. In his book of Meditations, speaking of a wife man's readiness to die, he says, "He should be so prepared, " that his readiness may be seen to be the effect of " a well-weighed judgment, not of MERE OBSTI-"NACY, like that of the Christians"." This is a very heavy charge on the primitive martyrs. he himself removes it in his constitution to the community of Asia, given us by Eusebius. "know, fays he, the gods are watchful to difeo-" ver fuch fort of men. For it is much more fit "that they themselves should punish those who

- τὸ δὲ ἴτο,μου αὐτο, ὑω ἀπὸ ἴ κὰς κρισευς ἔχκλαι, μεὶ ἐζ²

b Histor. lib. v. c. 5. St. Paul tells us in what this hefile odium, confifted, where speaking of their obstinate adherence to the Law against all the conviction of the Golpel, he fays, And the please not God, and are CONTRARY TO ALL MEN, I Thef. II. 15. They were not contrary to all men in their having different thes for each nation had rites different from one another: but in their condemning and reprobating all rites but their own. which being, till the coming of Christianity, peculiar to themfelves, was afcribed to their hatred of mankind.

"REFUSE TO WORSHIP THEM, than that we should "interfere in it "." Why then was it called mere obfinacy? The reason is seen above: universal prejudice had made men regard a resusal of this intercommunity as the most brutal of all dissociability. And the emperor Julian, who understood this matter the best of any, fairly owns, that the Jews and Christians brought the execration of the world upon them by their aversion to the gods of Paganism, and their resusal of all communication with them."

Thus have we endeavoured to explain the true origin of that universal TOLERATION (as far as religion influenced it) under Paganism; and the accidental causes of its violation under Christianity. The account will be further useful to many confiderable purpofes, as will be teen hereafter. At prefent I shall only take notice how well it obviates one specious objection against Christianity. "If it were, fay the Deifts, accompanied with fuch illustrious and extraordinary marks of truth, as is pretended; how happened it, that its truth was not feen by more of the best and wifest of those times? And if it were feen, (as it certainly was) how could they continue Pagans?" The answer is easy. The conviction of the truth of a new religion was not deemed a fufficient reason, by men overrun with the general prejudice of intercommunity, to quit their old ones.

The case indeed was different in a Jew, who

d Έχω μὲν «Τδ" ότι κὰ τεῖ. Sεεῖς ἐπιμελές ἐςι μὰ λανθάιεν τὰς τοιάτες πολύ & μαλλον ἐνεἰνοι κολάσαιεν ἀν τὰς μὰ βελομένες αυτὰς περσαυνεῖι η ύμεῖ. Eufeb. Eccl. Hijl. 1. iv. c. 13.

ο Αλλά τί, ὁ σεισπυνησες θεοῖς έπέροις ὁ δη μίγα τῆς σερὶ τὸν Θεόν Φησι διαδιλῆς. Θεὸς γὰρ ζηλιῆς Φησι  $\longrightarrow$  αφθε τέπιν τὸν λῆσειν, κὶ μὴ το Ακούτην ἰς ὑμὰς αὐτὸς ἐλκῆς Ελασζημίαν. Apud Cytill. cont. Jah. 1.  $\nabla$ .

held none of this intercommunity. If fuch a one owned the truth of Christianity, he must needs embrace it. We conclude, therefore, that the passage of Josephus (who was as much a Jew as the religion of Moses could make him) which acknowledges, Jesus to be the Christ f, is a rank forgery, and a very stupid one too s.

We have now feen the motives, the civil magifrate had to *tolerate*: --- Of what nature that *toleration* was: --- And how eafily it was brought about.

But then, left the people should abuse this right of worshiping according to their own will, to the detriment of the state in private and clandestine conventicles; which right the magistrate supported for the benefit of it; He took care, the worship should have the public approbation and allowance, before it was received on the footing of a tolerated religion.

So, by the laws of Athens, no firange god, or foreign worship was permitted till approved and licensed by the court of Areopagus. This is the reason why St. Paul, who was regarded as the bringer in of foreign gods, ΞΕΝΩΝ ΔΑΙΜΟΝΙΩΝ, was had up to that tribunal. Not as a criminal h, but ra-

f — Ἰησῶς, σορὸς ἀνής, εἴγε "Ανδια αὐτὸν λίγεν χεή" ἦν γὰς σαραδόξων ἔιγων σοιπίης. Διδασκαλ® ἀνθιωτων, τῶν ἡδυῆ τάληθη δεχομένων. — Ο ΧΡΙΣΤΟΣ ΟΥΤΟΣ ΗΝ. — Ἐράιη γὰς αὐτοῖς τείτην ἔχων ἡμές αν σαλιν ζῶν τῶν θείων σεοφηίων ταῦτα, κ) ἀλλα μυρία θαυματια τεὶ αὐτῶ εἰρηκότων. Antiq. xviii. 3. 3.

S See a further proof of it, Vol. ii. Book v. Sect. 4.

b St. Chryfoltom supposed, the apostle was convened before the Areopagus as a CRIMINAL: and this is become the general opinion. I would rather think, that the philosophers, who encountered him, invited him thither as a PUBLIC BENEFACTOR, who had a new worship to propose to the people. My reasons are these:

<sup>1.</sup> St. Paul was taken up to this court by the philosophers.

ther as a public benefactor, who had a new worship to propose to a people, religious above all others,

Acts xvii. 19. — But the philosophers, of that time, abhorred the character of delators or persecutors for religion: this was a temper which sprung up amongst them with the progress of Christianity. The worst opinion they had of Paul was his being a babbler, as the Epicureans called him; tho' the Stoics thought more reverendly of his character, as a setter forth of strange gods, Eirar dangoian xalalyerds, a discoverer of some sorien gods; for their hospitality extended to all strangers, whether gods or men; and this could not but be a welcome office to a people disposed to raise altars even to gods unknown, y 23.

2. Their address to him, when they had brought him thither, [may we know what this doctrine whereof thou speakest is, y 19.] implies rather a request to a teacher than an interro-

gatory to a criminal.

3. At least, the reason they give for their request goes no further than a desire to be satisfied concerning a doubtful matter—For thou bringest certain strange things to our ears, γ 20. ξειίζοιδα τινα, certain foreign ceremonies or customs. And Strabo, as we see, tells us, the Athenians were most addicted to fo-

reign worship.

4. The very words of the facred historian feem to shew that this was the whole of the matter. — For all the Athenians, and strangers which were there [i.e. such as resided there for education, or out of love for the Athenian manners] frent their time in nothing else but either to tell or to hear some new thing. Had the historian understood the citation to be of the criminal form, he would surely have given a more pertinent reason for the Athenians' conduct; such as their jealousy of danger to the state, or the established religion.

5. St. Paul's freech to the court has not the least air of an apology suiting a person accused; but is one continued information of an important matter, such as besitted a teacher or

benefactor to give.

6. Had he appeared as a criminal, the charge against him would have been simply, The jesting forth of strange gods. Now this charge of less importance he declines to answer; and yet confesses a much greater crime, of which he was not accused, namely a condemnation of their established worship — And the times of this ignorance God winked at, etc. § 30.

7. The behaviour of the court towards him snews he was not heard as a criminal. He is neither acquitted nor condemned; but dismissed as a man, coran non judice. — And when

 $\Omega\Sigma$   $\Delta$ EI $\Sigma$ I $\Delta$ AIMONE $\Sigma$ TEPOI, most addicted, as Strabo tells us, to the recognition of foreign wer-

they heard of the refurrection of the dead, some mocked: and others

faid, We will bear thee again of this matter, y 32.

8. He left the court, as one thus difinished. — So Paul departed from among st them, \$2.3. A strange way of intimating a juridical acquittal: but very naturally expressing the resentment of his slighted mission. For as some mocked, and others referred him to an indefinite time of audience, nothing was left him but to depart, and, according to his master's direction, to stake the dust from his feet.

g. The historian's reflection on the whole supports all the foregoing reasons - Howbeit, certain men clave unto him, and believed, etc. \$ 34. A very natural conclusion of the story, if only a transaction within the sphere of his Mission; for then, having related its ill fuccess in general, some mocking, and others putting off the hearing, he adds, that however it was not altogether without effect, for a few converts he did make, etc. But if we suppose it a narrative of a juridical process, we shall not find in it one circumstance of a proper relation. We are not to much as told whether he was acquitted or cenfured, or whether he gave caution for a new appearance: But, as if so illuftrious a profecution (where the most learned of the Aposiles was the Criminal, the Greek Philosophers his Accusers, and the Court of Areopagus his Judges) was below the historian's notice, we are told a thing quite foreign to the matter, -That he made but few converts.

In a word, take this history in the fense here explained, and the whole narrative is simple, exact, and luminous: Take it in the other, and it scarce affords us one single quality of a pertinent relation, but is obscured from one end to the other,

both by redundancies and omissions.

But had the interpreters not overlooked a plain fact, they would have given a different fense to this adventure. When Christianity first appeared, its two enemies, the Jews and Gentiles, had long administred their superstitions on very different principles. The Jews employed persecution; but the Gentiles gave a free toleration. And tho', soon after, the latter went into the intolerant measures of the other, yet, at this time, they still adhered to the ancient genius of Paganism. So that, of the many various persecutions of the Christian Teachers, recorded in The Asts of the Apostles, there is not one but what was begun and carried on by Jewish magistrates, or at least excited by their emissaries; if we except that at Philippi, which too was

flipi, and " of all the Greeks, as Julian observes. "most devoted to religion, and most hospitable to "ftrangers k." Tully makes Solon the founder of this court. But the Arundel marbles and Plutarch in his life of that lawgiver m, contradict this opinion; and the latter, in support of his own, quotes a law of Solon's, which makes mention of the Areopagus as already existing. The difficulty is how to reconcile these accounts. I imagine this might be the case: Solon, we know, was employed by the Athenians to new-model their commonwealth, by reforming the ill conflitutions, and fupplying fuch as were defective. So that in the number of his regulations, this might be one; The adding, to the court of Areopagus, the peculiar jurisdiction in question; as of great moment to public utility. And having thus enlarged and ennobled its jurifdiction, he was afterwards regarded as its founder. A passage in Æschylus seems, at first sight indeed, not to favour this opinion; but to infinuate, that the jurisdiction in question was coeval with the court. In the fifth act of his Eumenides, he makes the worship of the furies, or the venerable goddesses, as they were called, to be received and recognized in Athens, by a decree of Minerva, as head of the cellege of Arcopagus, which the poet feigns she had just then instituted. But this plainly appears to have been contrived only for the fake of a

on pretence of an injury to private property. — See the well-reasoned tract, intituled, Observations on the conversion of St. Paul, p. 71. in the note.

k — ώς κ၌ φιλίθεοι μάλιςα σάνιων είσλ, κ၌ δέξιοι τέχος τως ξένως. Πίδροσ

<sup>&#</sup>x27; Άδηναίοι δ' Εσπερ σερί τα άλλα Φιλοξειθθες διαθελεσεν, έτω η στερί τος θεός. σολλώ γαρ τ ξειικών Γερών σαρεδέξαθο. Geogr. L. X.

De Officiis, lib. i. c. 22.

m Vitæ parall. vol. i. p. 194. edit Bryan.

poetical embellishment: and Æschylus seems to employ one circumstance in this scene, designedly to inform us of the order of time, in which the court received its two different jurisdictions. It is, where he makes the criminal cause of Orestes, the first which was judged at that tribunal; and the religious one, of the reception of the Eumenides, but the fecond. However this be, the Areopagus was, by far, the most formidable judicature in the republic. And it is observable, that Aristophanes, who spares neither the fleets, the armies, the courts of justice, the person of the supreme magistrate, the assemblies of the people, or the temples of the gods themselves, does not dare to hazard the least injurious reflection on that venerable body.

The ROMANS had a law to the fame purpose; which, as often as it was violated, was publicly vindicated by the authority of the state: as appears from the words of Posthumius in Livy, quoted in the last section: "Quoties hoc patrum " avorumque ætate negotium est magistratibus da-"tum, ut facra externa fieri vetarent, facrificulos " vatesque foro, circo, urbe prohiberent, vaticinos " libros conquirerent "?" etc. Which shews their care to have all tolerated religions under the magiftrate's infpection. And, if I am not much miftaken, Tully, in his Books of laws, the fubstance of which is taken from the Twelve tables, gives us that very law; whereby, as we faid, all foreign and clandestine worship, unauthorized by the civil magistrate, was forbid. Separatim nemo HABESSIT DEOS: NEVE NOVOS, NEVE ADVENAS, NISI PUBLICE ADSCITOS, PRIVATIM COLUNTO °.

n Lib. xxxix. Hift.

o Lib. ii. c. 3. Thus, I think, the words ought to be read

"No man shall worship the Gods clandestinely, or have them separately to himself: nor shall any have or foreign God be worshiped by particulars, till such God hath been legally approved of, and tolerated by the magistrate." The comment, as concise, and consequently as obscure as the text, follows in these words: Suosque deos, aut no-

and pointed. The common reading is, fetaratim nemo habeflit deos neve novos: sed ne advenas, nist publice adscitos, privatim colunto: which is abfurd and unintelligible. The manuscript quoted by Manutius reads, neve novos five advenas. In a word, this Law feems not to have been understood by the critics, from their not apprehending the nature of Paganism, and the distinction between their tolerated and established religions. By the first branch, separatim nemo habessit deos, is meant that the gods in general should not be worshiped in private CONVENTICLES, or be had, as it were in propriety. Suos deos, fays the comment. And by the fecond branch, neve novos, neve advenas, aisi publice adscitos, privatim colunto, is meant that PARTICU-LARS should not worship any new or foreign god without licence and authority from the flate. For we must remember what hath been faid, in the first section of this book, concerning the two parts of Pagan religion; the one public, and the other private; the one, which had the flate for its subject; the other, particulars. Now the flate, as such, worshiped only the country gods; and this was properly the established religion. The particulars, as such, frequently grew fond of new and foreign gods, and modes of worship: and these, when allowed by the flate, were their tolerated religions. Privatim therefore fignifies [by particulars] not [privately] which latter fense would make a contradiction in the sentence: Nisi publice adscitos, privatim colunto: " Let them not worship them PRIVATELY, un-" less they be PUBLICLY allowed." For how could those be faid to be privately worshiped, that were publicly owned? By decs novos, both here and in the comment, I suppose, is meant gods newly become fuch: which in another place he calls — quasi novos et adscriptitios cives in calum receptos. — De nat. deor. I. iii. c. 15. For the ali minorum gentium were a kind of every-day manufacture: fuch as Tully in the words immediately following thus describes: Ollos ques endo calo merita vocaverint; or, those who had newly discovered themselves to men. And by ADVENAS, the known Iscal gods of other countries.

VOS, AUT ALIENIGENAS COLI, CONFUSIONEM HABET RELIGIONUM, ET IGNOTAS CEREMONIAS: NON A SACERDOTIEUS, NON A PATRIBUS ACCEPTOS DEOS, ITA PLACERET COLI, SI HUIC LEGI PARUERANT IPSI P. "For each man to have his Gods in peculiar, whether new or franger Gods, "without public allowance, tends to defeat and

P Lib. ii. c. 10. Thus I venture to correct the passage. The common editions have it - Non a facerdotibus, non a patribus acceptos deos, ita PLACET celi, si buic legi PARUERUNT ipsi. Gruter fays: Ita me Deus amet, vix intelligo: hæreo, adhuc hæreo. --- And none of the critics have pretended to make sense of it, but Petit, in his comment on the Attic laws: De advenis Diis (says he) sibi facit objici Tullius, an non liceat acceptos a facerdotibus aut a patribus alienigenas Deos colere? Respondet Cicero, licere, si, prout hac cavebatur lege, publice sint adsciti, non priva patrum aut sacerdotum auctoritate. Hic igitur verborum Tullii sensus est, qui latet et lectores fugit, qui excidit interrogationis nota, loco suo restituenda et reponenda ad hunc modum: Suosque deos, aut novos aut alienigenas coli, confusionem habet religionum, et ignotas ceremonias. Non a sacerdotibus, non a patribus acceptos deos? Ita placet coli, si huic legi PARUERINT ipsi. But as plausible as this appears, it cannot, I think, be the true interpretation: For 1. Tully is made to object impertinently: for who, from the words neve novos, neve advenas, nisi publice adscitos, privatim colunto, could form any suspicion that, by this law, the gods received by the priests or their forefathers, or by any else, were forbid to be worshiped, were they but publicly allowed? And those not so allowed, were forbid, from whatever quarter they were brought in. 2. This interpretation does not well agree with the cast and design of the work. Tully says of it, Non enim populo Romano, sed omnibus bonis firmisque populis leges damus. So that an objection respecting only the city of Rome was from the purpose. On the other hand, the propriety of the sense, given above, is seen from hence: 1. That the observation is of the nature of an example to a precept. He delivers a law concerning the licensing new religions by the magistrate; and then takes notice that, had it been well observed in Rome, it had prevented a great deal of superstition. 2. The frequent breach. of this law in Rome was a notorious fact; as appears by the speech of Posthumius in Livy, quoted above; and therefore very likely to be taken notice of by Tully, when he was upon

"confound all religion, and introduce clandeftine worship: and had the priests and our forefathers had a due regard to this law, we should never have approved of that kind of worship which we now pay to the Gods they introduced a-

" mongst us."

But notwithstanding all this, Mr. Bayle, from the words above quoted from the speech of Posthumius in Livy, would persuade us q, that the Romans did not admit or tolerate foreign worship; and that the care of the magistrate, there taken notice of by the consul, was to prohibit all religions, but the *established*: an opinion which the whole Roman history discredits; where we find the magistrate, from time to time, tolerated all foreign religions with the utmost facility. The

this fubject. And what St. Austin fays, in his fecond book of the City of God, concerning the actions told of the gods in their public worship at Rome, and the lubricity of that worship, shews the feafonableness of this animadversion. Further, as the general fense of the law justifies the emendation in the Comment; so the words, aut novos, aut alienizenas, in the Comment, confirm the correction in the law. - By, confusionem religionum, I suppole Tully meant, such a consussion of ceremonies, as would leave no distinction between the established and tolerated worship; and thereby reduce Religion to so impotent a flate, as to render it useless to civil society: And by, ignotas ceremonias, rites, which the magistrate, by reason of their celebration in private conventicles, could not take cogmizance of: which might hurt the morals of fociety, by their lewdness, as happened in the Bacchanals at Rome; or endanger its peace by cabals and factions, which their fecrecy might fupport and encourage. In the remaining words, the author gives a plain intimation, that, had this law been observed, many fuperflitions both in the established and tolerated religions had been avoided; which he intimates their ignorant forefathers and interested priests had introduced, without warrant from the State. To conclude, the neglect of this law in Rome was very notorious: and, probably, owing to their having no standing judicature, as at Athens, for that purpose.

care then Posthumius meant was furely that of preventing all clandestine worship, unlicensed by the magistrate: which appears even from that other passage brought by Mr. B. from Livy to support his affertion : "Nec corpora modo affecta tabo, " fed animos quoque multiplex religio et pleraque " externa invasit, novos ritus sacrificando, vatici-" nando inferentibus in domos, quibus questui funt " capti superstitione animi "." But more particularly from the very affair Posthumius was here engaged in. At the time this speech was made, the State was above meafure exasperated by the monstrous enormities committed in the clandestine rites of Bacchus: yet it is observable, that, in the edict passed in the very height of their resentment, the right of toleration was preserved inviolate: the decree of the Senate providing, "That there should "be no Bacchanals celebrated either in Rome or "Italy. If any one should be possessed with a " belief that this fort of rite was due by custom, "and necessary; and that he could not omit the " celebration of it without irreligion and impiety, " he should lay his case before the city pretor; the " pretor should consult the Senate, when there was "not less than an hundred in council, to know if "they approved of it. These cautions observed, the "rites might be celebrated, provided that not "more than five affifted at the facrifice, that they "had no common purse, no priest, nor a master of " the solemnities s."

<sup>r</sup> Lib. iv. Hift,

s—Ne qua Bacchanalia Romæ, neve in Italia essent. Si quis tale facrum solenne et necessarium duceret, nec sine religione et piaculo se id omittere posse apud Prætorem urbanum prositeretur; Prætor senatum consuleret, si ei permissum esset, quum in senatu centum non minus essent, ita id sacrum sacret, dum ne plus quinque sacrissicio interessent, neu qua pecunia communis, neu quis magister sacrorum, aut sacredos esset. Lib. xxxix.

As here, the magistrate's care in expelling foreign religions was to prevent clandestine worship amongst the tolerated; so at other times, the same care was employed in preventing those foreign religions from mixing with the established, as we are informed by Valerius Maximus. But neither in that case, nor in this, was the liberty of particulars, to worship as they thought sit, at all infringed, or

impaired.

Dionysius of Halicarnassus plainly distinguishes between their established and tolerated religions. The passage is curious; and will not only serve to confute Mr. B.'s notion, but to furnish us with an opportunity to explain what is further wanting on this matter. The words of this diligent enquirer into the roman constitution, are as follows: "What, above all things, raifed my admiration was, that, notwithstanding the vast " multitudes which throng from all parts to Rome, who must there, consequently, worship their own " country Gods, according to their country rites; " ver the city never adopted any of these foreign. worships into the Public religion; as hath " been the custom for many other states to do"." Whence it appears, 1. That all strangers might freely worship in Rome according to their own way; That fuch particulars as were fo disposed, might join with them; and that, besides these tolerated religions, there was one public, and established, which admitted of no foreign mixtures. 2. We are not to understand the author as if his wonder

٤ Lib. i. c. 3.

Υ Καὶ δ σαίδων μάλικα ἔγωγε τιθωύμακα, καίπες μυςίων ὅσων εἰς τὸν σε:λιν ἐπεληλυθίτων ἐθιῶν, εἶς σολλὸ ἀιάγκη σέθων τθς σατρίες θεθς τοῖς οἰκοθεν νιμίμοις, ἐδειὸς εἰς ζόλον ἐλήλυθε τῶν ξειικῶν ἐπίληδοθμάτων ὁ σολλς δημοσία, δ σολλιῖς ἡὸη συιεθη σαθιῖι. Antig. lib. ii.

was caused by the Romans having an established religion distinct from the tolerated; but, for that they mixed, or introduced into the cstabl:shed few or no foreign rites; which was the cultom in the cities of Greece: for those are the other states, which the historian means. But modern writers not adverting to this, When they faw the Roman practice of admitting no foreign worship into their public religion, concluded wrongly, that they allowed no toleration: and when they faw the Carok practice of naturalizing foreign religions, by adopting them into their public worship, concluded, as wrongly, that they had no establishments. 3. The words, Η ΠΟΛΙΣ ΔΗΜΟΣΙΑ, are remarkable: He does not fay, the city rejected foreign worthip, but, that it admitted not of it PUBL: LY; that is, did not bring it into the public religion or the State. For, as we observed before, Pagarifin had two parts, the one public, the other private: the state, as such, was the subject of the one; and particulars, as fuch, of the other. But they admitted of foreign rites privately; that is, allowed particulars to use them, after the magistrate's licence and been obtained for that purpose. So that the established religion, every where, related to the pullic part of Paganism; and the tolerated, to the private part. 4. The historian observes, that in this conduct Rome differed from many other cities, meaning the Grecian. And indeed, it was lefs a wonder than he feems to make it: For Rome, rifing on her own foundation, independent on, and unrelated to any other state, and early posfessed with the high enthusiasm of distinction and empire would naturally effect her tutelary Gods as her own peculiar; and therefore would reject all foreign mixtures. On the contrary, the Grecian states, related to, and dependent on one another, F 2

would more easily admit of an association and combination amongst their national Deities.

Such was the nature of Toleration in the Pagan world; and this the wife provision of ancient policy, while civil liberty could keep its own. But when now government began to degenerate, and All, preposterously to submit to the will of One; when the magistrate came to have a good, distinct from that of the people; and civil peace was estimated, not by the bleffings it produced, but by the degree of subjection it imposed; then the fashionable scheme of politics began to turn solely on the maintenance of a Tyrant's power: and He having observed, that, though the toleration of religion, under the regulations above described, was evidently for the advantage of fociety; yet, as those regulations were too apt to be neglected, he thought it best, by an absolute intolerance, and a thorough uniformity, to cut off all occasions and opportunities of mischief to himself, from private conventicles and conventions.

Agreeably to this fystem of power, we find Mæcenas, in Dion Cassius w, dissuading Augustus from allowing any toleration of religion at all: as, an indulgence, in this matter, would indispose men rowards the magistrate, and make them less fond of the civil and religious constitutions of their country; from whence factions, and consederacies against the State would unavoidably arise. He concludes his advice against toleration in these remarkable words: A HEP HKIETA MONAPXIA ETM-DEPEI; "as a thing by no means agreeing with arbitrary power." And Tacitus informs us the usurper followed it. Thus, we see, that the

<sup>™</sup> Lib. Hift. 52.

Actum et de facris Ægyptiis Judaicisque pellendis: fac-

famous declaration of, one KING AND ONE RELI-GION, is not a new maxim, for which we are indebted to modern policy.

So noble an original had the principle of INTO-LERANCE: and so iniquitous are the adversaries of our holy religion, to throw it upon the *christicn* Faith; when it appears to have been the pure offfpring of *civil Tyranny*; how well soever it may have been afterwards brought up and nursed by some Fathers of the Church.

Thus have I attempted to give a plain account of the general methods used by ancient Policy to inculcate and support Religion. Was I to speak, as I once intended, of those which particular Lawgivers and Magistrates employed for the use of their proper focieties, I should have it in my power to throw great light upon the argument. this, tho' the most curious part of the subject, must be omitted at prefent, by reason of its length. In the mean time, I prefume, more than enough hath been faid, even in those places which only shew the Legislator's care for religion in general, to prove the truth of the proposition, That, in the opinion of ancient policy, the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments was indifferlably useful to civil fociety. For having shown that the dostrine of a future state was an inseparable part of Pagan religion, and indeed the fole support of it, the proving their care for religion, in general, proves their care for this doctrine in particular. Where, it is worth observing, that, tho' the ancient Lawgivers deviated from truth, and differed from one an-

tumque patrum confultum, ut quatuor millia libertini generis ca fuperflittone infecta, quis idonea actas in infelam Sardiniam veherentur, coercendis illic latrociniir, et fi ob gravitatem celi interiffent, vile damnum: ceteri cederent Italia, nifi, certam ante diem profanos ritus exuifient. Tac. Amad. 1. ii. c. 85.

other, even in the most important points, concerning property, marriage, deminion, etc. yet they unanimously agreed in owning the use, and propagating the belief of a future state of rewards and punishments: And what stronger proof would any one desire of the necessity of that doctrine to Religion and Society?

We now fee the close connection between *Civil government* and *Religion*. The following observation will still further explain the necessity of this union.

That benevolent spirit of Antiquity, described above, which fet their Heroes upon polishing the barbarous manners of their fellow creatures, and imparting to them the bleffings of civil life, as divine as it appears, hath yet been far exceeded by the charity of these ages, which sends MISSIONA-RIES into the furthest regions of the east and west, with that inestimable blessing, the glad tidings of the Gospel. But nothing is matter of more grief to ferious men than the conftant ill fuccess of so charitable an undertaking. Something fure must have been greatly amiss, to defeat a design which all nature conspires to advance. This would be accounted for. Catholic (as they call themselves) and protestant Missionaries go promiscuously to either India. The Catholics have laboured most in countries civilized; but, giving a commentitious system for the gospel of Christ, it is no wonder the Pagans should not be greatly disposed to change old fables for new. And tho' the protestant Misfionaries carry the genuine Gospel with them into America, yet they preach it to Savages, with no better fuccess. The reason seems to be because they are Sareges, without Government or Laws; and consequently of very rude, uncultivated minds. Now Christianity, plain and simple as it is, and fluted in its nature for what it was defigned by its author,

author, requires an intellect above that of a mere Savage to understand y. Something then must be previous to it. And what is that fomething but civit SOCIETY? This is not at all to its dishonour. And if it hath fometimes happened, thro' the indefatigable labours of these Missionaries, both of the one and the other communion, that numbers of favage converts have been made, they could never long preferve, or propagate amongst their tribes, the Christianity they had been taught: but their fuccessors have always found the work was to begin anew, and in a little time, nothing left of the other's labours to advance upon. And if what we have faid in this book be true, That religion cannot long subsist without the aid of civil government, we are not to wonder at it: for, from hence we conclude, they began at the wrong end: and that to make our holy religion rightly understood, much more to propagate

Y An intelligent missionary seemed to see where the thing stuck, when he fays, Pour ce qui est des conversions, qu'on peut faire de ces gens la touchant l'Evangile, on ne sauroit faire aucun fond sur eux. Ces sauvages, de meme que tous ceux de l'Amerique sont fort peu disposez aux lumieres de la soi, parce qu'ils sont brutaux et stupides, et que leurs mœurs sont extremement corrompues, et opposées au Christianisme. Nouvelle Decouv. dans l'Ameriq. Sept. par le R. P. Louis Hennepin Missionaire Recollect et Notaire Apostolique, à Utr. 1697. p. 221. The corrupt manners of the favages here complained of, as indifpoling them to the Gospel, we find, from this writer and others, are of such a kind as arife only from the want of civil government; and which civil government every where rectifies; fuch as rapine, cruelty, and promiscuous mixtures. Hans Egede, a Danish missionary, who had been five and twenty years in Greenland, in his description of that country, speaks to the same essed: "It " is a matter which cannot be questioned (fays this sensible "writer) that, if you will make a man a Christian out of a " mere savage and wild man, you must first make him a rea-"fonable man. --- It would contribute a great deal to forward 56 their conversion, if they could, by degrees, be brought into " a fettled way of life," etc. p. 211, 12.

and perpetuate it, they should first have taught these Savages the arts of life: from whence (befides the advantages of that previous knowledge abovementioned) would have refulted this further benefit, that men fo fenfibly obliged, would have given a more favourable attention to their benefactors. As it is, I am afraid these Savages obferving in the Missionaries (and they have sense enough to observe that the Europeans keep many things from them which it would be useful for them to know) a total difregard of their temporal concerns, will be hardly brought to think the matters pressed upon them of much importance, or the teachers greatly in earnest. The civilizing a barbarous people is in itself a work of such exalted charity, that to fee it neglected, when a far nobler end than the arts of life may be procured by it, is matter of the utmost astonishment z. But it is partly owing to this, that many of both missions have had too much of that enthusiasm in their temper, which disposes men to an utter contempt of worldly things: they are therefore fo far from preaching up the advantages of fociety, and recommending civil manners, that they are more disposed to throw aside their own; and comply with the dried skins and parched corn of the Savages. While others of them, of a colder turn, and lower form of *Juperstition*, having taken it into their heads, that the vices of improved life would more indispose the Indians to the precepts of the

This justice is due to the Jesuits. That they have been wifer in their attempts on Paraguay, and on the coast of California; where they have brought the savage inhabitants to a love of agriculture and the mechanic arts. The mission in California was sounded at the expence of a certain marquis de Valero; for which, the reverend person, whose name is to the account of Lord Anson's cryage round the avorld, calls him a most magnificent bigot.

Gospels

Gospel, than their present brutality incapacitates them from comprehending the dostrines of it, have concluded it best, upon the whole, to keep their eyes shut to the advantages of civil life. But without doubt so fatal a condust arises chiefly from the false and inhuman policy of the European colonies, a policy common to every sect and profession, which makes them do all in their power to keep the natives in a savage state; as suspecting that the neighbourhood of a civilized people would be too unfriendly to their private interests. However, this policy, as bad as it is, has yet something less diabolic in it than that other part of Colony-Relligion, which robs the opposite Continent of so

<sup>a</sup> This is the fystem of Charlevoix in the following passage; which is well worth the reader's notice: After having spoken of the shocking miseries attending the uncivilized condition of the Canadian favages, he goes on thus: Il faut néanmoins convenir que les choses ont un peu changé sur tous ces points, depuis notre arrivée en ce pays; J'en ai même vû chercher à se procurer des commodités, dont ils auront peut-être bientôt de la peine à se passer. Quelques-uns commencent aussi à prendre un peu plus leurs précautions pour ne pas se trouver au depourvû, quand la chasse leur manquera; et parmi ceux, qui tont domiciliés dans la colonie, il y a bien peu à ajouter pour les faire arriver au point d'avoir un nécessaire raisonnable. Mais qu'il est à craindre que, quand ils en seront là, ils n'aillent bientôt plus loin, et ne donnent dans un suberfiu, qui les rende plus malheureux encore, qu'ils ne font presentement dans le sein de la plus grand indigence. Ce ne sera pas au moins les missionnaires, qui les exposerent à ce danger; persuadés qu'il est moralement impossible de bien prendre ce juste milieu, et de s'y borner, ils ont beaucoup mieux aimé partager avec ces peuples ce qu'il y a de penible dans leur maniere de vivre, que de leur ouvrir les yeux sur les moyens d'y trouver des adoucissemens. Aussi ceux-memes, qui font tous les jours temoins de leurs fouffrances, ont-ils encore bien de la peine à comprendre comment ils y peuvent resister, d'autant plus qu'elles sont sans re-11che, et que toutes les faisons ont leurs incommodités particulieres. Journal Histor. I'un voyage dans l'Ameriq. Septent. vol. vi. p. 57, 58.

many thousands of our species, for a yearly facrifice to their great idol, GAIN. Be this as it will, I dare venture to foretell, that no great good will ever come of these missions, till the two projects of civilizing and faving be joined in one.

As the matter stands at present, the forests of north and south America are good for little but to be made nurseries for Free-thinkers. The inhabitants, by following simple nature, are already in possession of that blessing, vainly wish'd for by this Theologico-political-philosophy at home; namely the removal of all religious prejudices from the education of their children. A learned voyager, who has been lately on a mathematical mission to the Equator, describes this happy and envied condition in very emphatic terms; which the reader may find below b. What crops of Free-thinking may not be expected from so happy a climate! But our philo-

b - J'ai cru reconnoître dans tous sles Indiens Américains, quoique différentes en langues, mœure, et contumes] un même fonds de charactère. L'infensibilite en fait le base. Je laisse à decider si on la doit honorer du nom d'apathie; ou l'avilir par celui de stupidité. Elle nait sans doute du petit nombre de leurs idées, qui ne s'étend pas au delà de leurs besoins. Gloutons jusqu'à la voracite, quand ils ont de quoi se satisfaire; fobres, quand la necessité les y oblige, jusqu'à se passer de tout, sans paro tre rien desirer; pusillanimes et poltrons à l'excès, si l'ivresse ne les transporte pas; ennemis du travail, indifférens à tout motif de gloire, d'honneur, ou de reconnoifsance; uniquement occupés de l'objet présent, et toujours déterminés par lui; sans inquiétude pour l'avenir; incapables de prevoyance et de réflexion; se livrant, quand rien ne les gêne, a une joie puerile, qu'ils manifettent par des fauts et des éclats de rire immoderés, sans objet et sans dessein; ils passent leur vie sans penser, et ils vieillissent sans sortir de l'enfance, dont ils conservent tous les défauts - on ne peut voir sans humiliation combien l'homme abandonné à la fimple nature, privé d'éducation et de focieté, differe peu de la bête. Relation d'un wovage dans l'Amerique meridionale, par M. de la Condamine, p. \$1, et feq.

fophers perhaps on reflection may think their favourite maxim here pushed a little too far. However, this pure state of it may be of use to dispose them to confider further whether the maxim, in the extent they themselves recommend it to be inforced, be perfectly well founded. It is true, a superstitious education is productive of great evils. But what then? If thro' these prejudices the Omaguas of the fouthern continent think it piety at the birth of their children, to flatten their heads, like a cheese, between two boards, that their faces may resemble their Deity, the full moon, Should the ridicule of this custom make it thought absurd in us, to bring up our children in the love of justice, of purity, and benevolence, that they may resemble the God of the Christians, whom we adore? Our philosophers will fay, so far they are not unwilling to go. What they want, is to have the infantmind kept free from the deformed impressions of POSITIVE RELIGION. But they must pardon us if we think, that in such minds, precepts are best inforced by example; and that the best example is that of the Deity in his dispensations to mankind as delivered by positive religion.

Was the full definition of man, a GOOD PHILOSO-PEER, and his only business, speculative truth, something might be said in favour of preserving his mind a rasa tabula, till he was himself able to judge what was sit to be written on it. But as he was sent into the world to make a GOOD CITIZEN, in the observance of all the relations of civil, social, and domestic life; as he was born for practice and not for speculation, I should think that virtues, so necessary for the discharge of those relations, could not be infinuated too soon, or impressed too frequently; even the the consequence might happen to be, the acquiring 76 The Divine Legation, etc. Book II. an obstinate and unconquerable prejudice in their favour.

On the whole, then, we fee, that the ancient Lawgivers were as much fuperior to the modern Miffionaries in the execution, as Thefe are to Them in the defign. Those fages saw plainly that religion and civil policy were inseparable; and therefore they always taught them together. The experience of all ages justified their conduct; and the truth, on which they acted, gives us the most transcendent idea of Divine goodness, which hath so closely united our temporal to our spiritual happiness. The sum of all is this, that whoever would secure Civil government, must support it by the means of Religion; and whoever would propagate Religion, must perpetuate it by the means of Civil government.

## BOOK III.

## SECT. I.

N the beginning of the last book, I entered upon the proof of my focal namely, THAT ALL ANTIQUITY WAS UNANI-MOUS IN THINKING THAT THE DOCTRINE OF A FUTURE STATE OF REWARDS AND PUNISHMENTS WAS NECESSARY TO THE WELL BEING OF SOCIETY: And the method I laid down for it, was, 1. To thew the conduct of legislators, and the founders of civil policy. 2. The opinions of the wisest and most learned of the ancient sages.

The conduct of the legislators hath been

fully examined in the last book.

II. THE OPINION OF THE ANCIENT SAGES, is

the subject of the present.

THEY too, as well as the Lawgivers, were unanimous in this point, how difcordant foever and at variance amongst themselves, in other matters. Whatever train of Policy the historian followed; whatever fystem of Nature the philosopher espoused; THIS always remained an unquestioned principle. The favourer of arbitrary power deemed it the strongest bond of blind obedience; and the friend of civil liberty, the largest source of virtue and a public spirit. The atheist, from the vastness of its focial use, concluded religion to be but an invention of state; and the theist, from that confeffed utility, laboured to prove it of divine original.

To

To give the reader a detail of the passages, where this truth is owned and supported, would be to transcribe all antiquity: for, with this begins and ends every thing they teach and explain of morals, politics, human nature, and civil actions. I shall therefore content myself with two or three passages, as a specimen only of the general voice of ancient Wisdom.

Timæus the Locrian, a very early Pythagorean, well practifed in affairs, and, in Plato's opinion, of consummate knowledge in philosophy, discourfing on the remedies to moral evil, after having spoken of the use of philosophy to lead well tempered minds to happiness, by teaching the measures of just and unjust, adds, that, for intractable spirits civil fociety was invented; which keeps men in fear by the coercions of Law and Religion: "But " if we come (fays he) to a perverse ungovernable "disposition, there, punishments should be ap-" plied; both those which civil laws instict, and those which the terrors of religion denounce " against the wicked from above and from below: 46 as, that endless punishments attend the shades of unhappy men; and all those torments, which "I highly applaud the Ionic poet for recording " from ancient tradition, in order to cleanse and " purify the mind from vice a."

That fage hiftorian, Polybius, (whose knowledge of mankind and civil society was so celebrated, that Rome preferred him to the august employment of composing laws for Greece, now become a province to the republic,) speaking of the ex-

El δε κά τις σκλαιδε κζ ἀποιθής, τύτω δ' ἐπέδω κόλασιε, ἄ τ' ἐκ τῶν νόμων κλ ὰ ἐκ τῶν λόγων σύθοια ἐπάγοισι δείμαῖα τε ἐπωράνια κζ τὰ καθ ἄδεω, ὅτι κολασιες ἀπαραίτητοι ἀπόκειθαι δυσδαίμοσι νεξέρεις: κζ τὰλλα ἰσα ἐπαινέω τὸν Ἰωνικὸν ποιηλάν, ἐκ πασλαιᾶς ποιείδα τῶς ἰκαγίας. Περὶ ψυχᾶς κόσμω:

cellence of the Roman constitution, expresseth himfelf in this manner: "But the fuperior excellence " of this policy, above others, manifests itself, in " my opinion, chiefly in the religious notions "the Romans hold concerning the Gods: that "thing, which in other places is turned to abuse, " being the very support of the Roman affairs: "I mean the FEAR OF THE GODS, or what the "Greeks call superstition; which is come to such a " height, both in its influence on particulars, and "on the public, as cannot be exceeded. This, "which many may think unaccountable, feems " plainly to have been contrived for the fake of " the community. If, indeed, one were to frame a " civil policy only for wife men, it is possible this " kind of institution might not be necessary. But " fince the multitude is ever fickle and capricious, "full of lawless passions, and irrational and vioce lent resentments, there is no way left to keep "them in order, but by the terrors of FUTURE 66 PUNISHMENT, and all the pompous circumstance "that attends fuch kind of fictions. On which " account the ancients acted, in my opinion, with " great judgment and penetration, when they con-"trived to bring in these notions of the Gods, " and of a future state, into the popular be-" lief; and the prefent age as inconfiderately, and " abfurdly, in removing them, and encouraging 44 the multitude to despise their terrors. "now the difference: in Greece, the man who is " entrusted with the public money (to pass by "other matters) tho' it be but of a fingle talent, " and tho' he give a ten-fold fecurity in the most 46 authentic form, and before twice the number " of witnesses, cannot be brought to discharge his " engagements; while, amongst the Romans, the " mere religion of an oath keeps those, who have

" vast sums of money pass thro' their hands, ei-"ther in the public administration or in foreign " legations, from the least violation of their trust, " or honour. And whereas, in other places, it is "rare to find a man, who can keep his hands "clean, or forbear plundering his country; in "Rome it is as rare to take any one offending in "this kind. That every thing which exists is " fubject to mutation and decay, we need not be " told; the unalterable nature of things fufficiently "informs us of this truth. But there being two "ways, whereby every kind of policy is ruined "and diffolved; the one from without, and the "other from WITHIN; that destruction, which " cometh from without, cannot be confrantly avoid-" ed by any human provision: but then, there are "known and efficacious remedies b for those evils " which arise from within "."

b Polybius fays literally, There are two ways by which a flate is brought to diffolution, from without and from within: that from without is uncertain and little known; that from within is known and certain. By which words he must mean what I make him to say, as appears by what he immediately subjoins, where he shews how the power of the Great, when degenerated into tyranny, may be checked by the people: whose opposition to power produces, as it happens to be well or ill managed, either the best or worst form of government, a Democracy or

Ochlocracy.

C Μεγίτην δέ μοι δοκεῖ διαφορών ἔχειν τὸ Γαμαίων σολίτουμα σερὸς τὸ βέλτιον, ἐν τῆ σεὰ βεῶν διαλήψει. Καί μοι δοκεῖ τὸ σεὰς τοῖς ἀλλοις ἀνθρώποις ὁνειδιζόμενον, τῶτο συνέχειν τὰ Γωμαίων σεὰγμαῖα λέγω δὲ τὴν δεισιδαιμονίαν ἐπὶ τοσῦτον γὰρ ἐκτεῖραγώρδηλαι κὰ σαρεισῦκλαι τὲτο τὸ μές το σας αὐτοῖ; εἴς τε τὰς κατ ἐδίαν βίας κὰ τὰ κοινὰ τῆς σόλεως, ὡς ε μὰ καῖαλιπεῖν ὑπερδολήν. ὰ κὰ διξειεν ὰν σολλοῖς ἔθ θαυμασιον ἐμοί γε μὰν δοκῶσι τὰ σκήθες κὰ σίν τὰτο σεποιηκέναι. Εἰ τὰ γας ἔν σοδῶν αἰδεῶν σολίτευμα συναγαῖι, ἴσως ἐδὲν ἄν ἀναγκαῖΦ ὁ τοιἔτΦ τρόπΦ ἐπεὶ δὲ σῶν σλῆθός ἐςι ἐλαφρὸν κὰ σιλῆρις ἐπιθεμιων σαραιόμων, ὀγγῆς ἀλόρως, θυμῶ βιαίω, λείπεῖαι τοῖς ἀδήλοις φίδοις, κὰ τῆ τοιαύτη τραγωδία τὰ σλήθη συνέχειν. Διόσερ οἱ σαλαιοὶ δυκῶσί μοι τὰς σεὰ βεῶν ἐκιοίας, κὰ τὰς σεὰ ἐπον ἐκ ἄρὲ λξελύλεις ἐκ εἰκῆ κὰ ὡς ἔτυχεν εἰκ ἐκινοίας, κὰ τὰς σεὰ ἐπον ἐκ ἄρὲ λξελύλεις ἐκ εἰκῆ κὰ ὡς ἔτυχεν εἰκοίκους.

This long paffage deferves our attention, and for many reasons. Polybius was a Greek, and, as all good men are, a tender lover of his country, whose ancient glory and virtue were then fast on the decline, and the Roman mounting to its meridian. The melancholy reflections, ariting from this view of things, were always uppermost in his thoughts: to that speaking here of the great influence which religion had on the minds of the Romans, he could not forbear giving his countrymen a lesson, and instructing them in what he esteemed the principal cause of their approaching ruin; namely, a certain libertinism, which had spread amongst the people of condition who piqued themselves on a penetration superior to their ancestors and to the people, of regarding, and prepofterously teaching others to regard, the restraints of religion as illusory and unmanly. This he confirms by shewing the ftrong influence religion hath on the morals of men. But to understand what follows, of the two ways by which a state comes to ruin, from without and from within, which feems to be brought in a little abruptly, we must suppose, that those, to whom the historian addresses himself, had object-

τὰ Φλήθη σαξεισαγαφεῖν σκλύ δὲ μᾶλλοι οἱ νοῦ εἰκῆ κỳ ἀλόγως ἐκδάλλαν αυτα. Τοιγκέβν χρολς των άλλων, οι τὰ κοινὰ χαξίζονες, αθρί με τοις Ελλησιτ, έων ταλαίου μουον σις δυδώσιν, ανιγεαφιίς έχυθες δέκα, η σφοργίδας τοσαυτας, η μαθυςας διπλασίας, α δυναν) τητείν την σίςιν' σελα δε Ρωμαίος ο καθά τε τας άεχας છ Tus ซอุะธอิต์ละ ซอฟอ์ Ti ซฟฟีร์ 🗈 ทรุทุนล์ชพา ทูลม่รู้อที่ะะ อีเ ลย์ชหัร ชหัร หลัม τοι όρκου σίστως, της εσι το καθήκου. Και ο διά με τοῖς άλλοις σπάνιόν έτιν σύρων απεχόνενον άιδρα του δημοσίων, κή καθαρσύνθα α**ξε:** σαύται αξής δε τούς Ρωμαίοι σπαιιόν έτι το λαδείν τια σεφυραμθυοκ έτη τοιαύτη σημέξι. <sup>6</sup> τι με δν σαπι τούς δπιν επόχείαι φθορα κή นะในชื่อหน้า. สหะเรียน ซ์ ထား ဘေးရိ หว่าหะ "โน เพ้าหน้า ที่ "ที่ တိပ်ဘယ်" ထိုးထိုးหนา ကာမြင္ รทีรวน รทำ ของสบัชยม ထားราย " ซိบอริง ซีซิ ซอร์ตนา ซึ่งแบ หนป์ ซึ่ง ผูปตัวเอธิสม ထားφυκε στὰ: γέτ⊛- σολίειας, τε με έξωθεν, τθ δε έν αὐτοῖς φυομένα· τὸ με ริงใจรุ สำหรับ "ชังเท อบุนดีเล่าคะ "" ซึ่งพลุ่มที่ จน อ" เร็ แบ่งน้ำ รูงในทุนย์ใน. E Polyb. Historiarum lib. vi c. 54, 55. ed.

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ed, That it was not the want of piety, but the force of the Roman arms, which had broken the power of Greece; and that this they were to submit to, because all empires bave their stated periods. Let us suppose this, and the political reflection on the fall of states, will have a high propriety, and close connection with what preceded. It is to this effect: I agree with you, fays Polybius, that evils, coming fuddenly on a State from without, cannot be easily warded; but then, those arising from within, as they are commonly foreseen, have their remedies at hand. Now I take our misfortunes to have proceeded from these: for had not a neglect of religion depraved the manners of the Greeks, Rome had wanted both pretence and inclination to invade us; and therefore your trite aphorism of the mutability of human things is altogether misapplied.

But had this great man lived only one age later, he would have found large occasion of addressing this very admonition to the Romans themselves; when the same libertine spirit forerun and contributed to the destruction of their liberties; and religion had so lost its hold of those, whom, in the time of Polybius, it entirely possessed, that Cæsar could dare, in full senate, with a degree of licence unexampled in antiquity, to declare, that the doctrine of a future state of revarias and punishments was all a groundless notion. This was a dreadful prognostic of their approaching

ruin.

If this great politician then, may deferve credit, it would be worth while for our people of condition to look about them, and compute their gains by fuch a conduct: those of them I mean, if any such there be, who profess to love their country, and yet as publicly despife the religion

of it. One of them, who did both in an eminent degree, and who would substitute a TASTE, instead of a future state, for the government of the world, thus expresseth himself: "Even conscience, 46 I fear, fuch as is owing to religious discipline, " will make but a flight figure, where this TASTE " is fet amis. Amongst the vulgar perhaps it "may do wonders: a devil and a bell may prevail, where a jail and a gallows are thought "infufficient. But fuch is the nature of the li-"beral, polished, and refined part of mankind; "fo far are they from the mere simplicity of " babes and sucklings, that, instead of applying the " notion of a future reward or punishment to their "immediate behaviour in fociety, they are apt "much rather, through the whole course of their "lives, to shew evidently that they look on the "pious narrations to be indeed no better than "children's tales and the amusement of the mere " vulgar d." I will not now ask, Where was the religion, but where was the civil prudence of this great patriot? For if it be indeed true, as he confesses, that among it the vulgar a devil and a bell may prevail, where a jail and a gallows are thought insufficient; why would this lover of his country take off so necessary a testraint on the manners of the multitude? If he tays he would not, I ask, why then hath he publicly ridiculed it? Or was it indeed his intention to make all his fellow-citizens MEN OF TASTE? He might as well have thought of making them all Lords.

So abfurd, and permicious is the conduct of the free-thinkers, even admitting them to be in the right. But if, instead of removing the rubbish of superstition, they be indeed subverting the grounds of true

d Chara Beriffice, vol iii p. 177. edit. 3.

religion, what name must be given to this degree of

madness and impiety?

On the whole, I fear we are in no right way. Whether in the public too we refemble the picture this fage historian hath drawn of degenerated Greece, I leave to such as are better skilled in those matters to determine.

The great Geographer, whose knowledge of men. and manners was as extensive as the habitable globe, fpeaks to the fame purpose: "The mul-"titude in fociety are allured to virtue by those "enticing fables, which the poets tell of the illu-" strious atchievements of ancient heroes, such as "the labours of Hercules and Thefeus; and the " rewards conferred by the Gods for well-doing. "So again, they are restrained from vice by the " punishments the Gods are faid to inflict upon " offenders, and by those e terrors and threatnings "which certain dreadful words and monstrous " forms imprint upon their minds; or by believ-"ing that divine judgments have overtaken evil "men. For it is impossible to govern women "and the gross body of the people, and to keep "them pious, holy, and virtuous, by the pre-"cepts of philosophy: this can be only done by " the FEAR OF THE GODS; which is raised and sup-" ported by ancient fictions and modern prodigies.

<sup>\*</sup> Strabo's words are — Κωὶ φόδως, κὶ ἀπωλὰς, ἡ διὰ λόγων, ἡ διὰ τύπων ἀὐρων, " Fears and threatnings either by words or dread"ful forms." Casaubon, who corrected the last word very justly, has given us no explanation of the allusion in this obscure sentence. I am persuaded, the author had in his mindthe dreadful words spoken, and the representations exhibited in the mysleries, for the very purpose the author here mentions: so ἀπωλὰς refers to λίγων, and φοδως to τυπων ἀῶρων. The reader, who remembers what has been said in the section of the mysleries, in the foregoing book, concerning this matter, will be inclined to believe this to be the true explanation.

"The Thunder therefore of Jupiter, the Ægis of Minerva, the Trident of Neptune, the Thyrsus of Bacchus, and the Snakes and Torches of the Furies, with all the other apparatus of ancient theology, were the engines which the Legislator employed, as bugbears, to strike a terror into the childish imaginations of the Multitude "."

Lastly, Pliny the elder "owns it to be expedient "for society, that men should believe, that the Gods "concerned themselves in human affairs; and that "the punishments they instict on offenders, tho" fometimes late indeed, as from governors busied "in the administration of so vast an universe, yet "are never to be evaded". Thus He, though an Epicurean; but an Epicurean in his senses: from whom we hear nothing of the mad strains of Lucretius, "That all religion should be abolished, as "inconsistent with the peace of mankind."

s Verum in his Deos agere curam rerum humanarum credi, ex usu vitæ est; pænasque malesiciis aliquando seras, occupato Deo in tanta mole, nunquam autem irritas este. Hist.

GS

Nat. 1 ii. c. 7.

Ο Τ τε σολλοί τῶν τὰς σόλεις οἰκένθων εἰς μὰν σερθεοπίω ἄγονίαι τοις πθέσι τῶν μυθων, όταν ἀκέωσι τῶν ποιπίῶν ἀιδοχαγαθημαΐα μυθωθη διηγεμένων οἰον Ἡερακλέες ἀθλες, ἡ Επτέως, ἡ τιμας τήθα τῶν θεῶν νεμομένας, — εἰς ἀποίροπὴν δὲ, όταν κολάσεις τόλος θιῶν, μὰ Φίδεις, κὰ ἀπειλας, ἡ διὰ λόγων, ἡ διὰ τύπων ἀώρων τινῶν σεροσδεχωνίαι, ἡ κὰ ἀπειδώσι πελιπεσεῖν τινες. Οὐ γὰρ ὅχλον τε γυμαικῶν, ιὰ σαθίες χυθαίε σλήθες ἐπαγαγεῖν λόγω δυνάδον Φιλοσόρω, κὰ τη προταλλέσαμονίας τένο δὶ ἐκ ἀπευ μυθοποιίας, κὰ τεριδιας. Κεραυνός γιὰς αἰγις, κὰ τερίδιας. Κεραυνός γιὰς αἰγις, κὰ τερίδιας δια δεισιανίας, κὰ τερίδιας. Κεραυνός γιὰς αἰγις, κὰ τερίδιας καθοπλάς καθοποιίας κὰ δρικεδιείς, κὰ θυρπιλοίχα του δεων όπλα, μυθοι' κὰ σάσα θεολογία ἀξιχαίον παστα δὶ ἀπειδεξαίο οἱ τὰς σολιβείας καθαγησώμενοι μισμοποίνας πιὰς σιὸς τὰς νησεύφρονας. Strabo, Geogr. 1. i.

## SECT. II.

will be proper to fet together the Public Pro-FESSIONS, and the PRIVATE SENTIMENTS of the antient THEISTICAL PHILOSOPHERS: who, notwithstanding they were for ever discoursing on the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments, to the people, yet were all the while speculating in private on other and different principles. A conduct which could proceed from nothing, but a full persuasion that this dectrine was the very vital part of piety; and the only support of that insuence, which religion hath on the minds of the Multitude.

Now, tho' after reading their bistory, respecting on their characters, and examining their writings with all the care I was able, it appeared to me, that these men believed nothing of that future state which they so industriously propagated in the world, and therefore on this, as well as other accounts, deserved all the asperity of language with which they are treated by the sacred writers; yet the contrary having been long and generally taken for granted, and their real opinions often urged by our ablest divines, as conformable and savourable to the Christian doctrine of a suture state; I suspect that what I have here said, will be exclaimed against as an unreasonable and licentious paradox.

But, for all this, I do not defpair of proving it a real, tho' an unheeded, truth: and then I shall hope my reader's pardon for the length of this enquiry, as it is of no small mement to shew the sense antiquity had of the use of a future state to society; and as, in shewing that use, I shall be able to clear up a very important point of anti-

quity,

quity, doubly obscured, by length of time and per-

verfity of contradiction.

But, before I enter on the matter, I shall, in order to abate the general prejudice, explain what is meant by that future state, which, I suppose, the theistical philosophers did not believe. And this the rather, because the contrary opinion has continued the longer unquestioned, through the lax and ambiguous use of the term. Thus, because it was evident, that all, or most of the theistical philosophers believed, as well as taught, the immortality, or rather the eternity of the soul, men tied down to the associations of modern ideas concluded that they believed, as well as taught, the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments.

To make the reader, therefore, master of the question, it will not be unsit, just to distinguish the several senses, in which the ancients conceived the PERMANENCY of the human soul; and to reserve the explanation and assignment of them to their proper surface.

proper authors, for another place. This permanency was either,

I. A SIMPLE EXISTENCE after this life: or,

II. Existence in a state of reward and punishment, according to men's behaviour here.

Each of these was two-fold.

Simple existence was either,

I. An immediate refusion of the soul, on peath, into the universal nature of TO'EN, from whence it proceeded:

Ot, II. A continuance of its separate and distinct existence, on death, for a certain period, before its refusion into the TO  $^{\circ}$ EN, in a successive transition G 4

THROUGH VARIOUS ANIMALS, BY A NATURAL AND FATAL, NOT MORAL DESIGNATION.

Existence in a state of rewards and punishments was

- I. A STATE OF REWARDS AND PUNISHMENTS, IMPROPERLY SO CALLED; WHERE HAPPINESS AND MISERY WERE THE NATURAL AND NECESSARY CONSEQUENCES OF VIRTUE AND VICE; NOT POSITIVELY SO, OR BY THE FREE DESIGNATION OF WILL:
- Or, II. A STATE OF REWARDS AND PUNISHMENTS, PROPERLY SO CALLED; WHERE THE HAPPINESS AND MISERY CONSEQUENT ON VIRTUE AND VICE, WERE THE POSITIVE AND FREE DESIGNATION OF WILL, AND NOT THE NECESSARY CONSEQUENCES OF THINGS.

The LAST is that notion of a future state, so useful to society, which all the lawgivers, priests, and philosophers publicly taught and propagated; and which the people throughout the whole earth universally believed. Of this, the METEMPSYCHOSIS was an inseparable part; and, what is more, continues to be so to this very day, amongst all the civilized Gentiles of the East.

It is a future state, then, of rewards and punishments in general, and particularly the fecond and proper notion of it, (for as to the first, it was peculiar to the Platonists) which I pretend to prove the ancient philosophers did not believe.

But before I proceed to explain the principles of each feet, it will not be improper to premise those GENERAL REASONS, which induced me to think that the philosophers did not always believe what they taught: And that they taught this doctrine without believing it. And as the reader's chief projudice, on this

this point, ariseth from the philosophers' having talked and written so much in behalf of a suture state of rewards and punishments; the three first of the following general reasons will shew, 1. That they all thought it allowable to say one thing, and think another. 2. That they perpetually practised what they thus professed to be lawful. And 3. That they practised it on the very point in question.

I. My first general reason was, that the ancient sages held it lawful, for the public good, to say one

thing when they thought another.

We have described the times of antiquity very ill, if it does not appear, from what is here said, that each people had the most religious regard to the laws and constitutions of their country. What raised this veneration (natural to all men, accustomed to a form of policy) to such a height, was the popular prejudice in favour of their original. For, we have seen, the founders pretended to receive their respective institutions from some patron God. At the same time, with the civil policy, they established the national religion; whose principal rites were objective to the patron God; which gave occasion to the Public Part of religion, explained above: whereby, the State, as such, became the subject of religious worship.

This making the national religion one of the most necessary and essential parts of civil government, it would become a general maxim, not only of mere politicians, but of all the best and wisest of those times, That every one should conform to the religion of his country. We see, by the behaviour of Socrates himself how much men were possessed with the fitness and importance of this rule. That excellent man, who made it the business of his life to search out, and expose

the errors of human conduct, was most likely to detect the folly of this general prejudice. Yet when he comes to his defence before his judges; a defence, in which he was fo fcrupulous that he rejected what his friends would have added of confeffed utility to his fervice, because not strictly conformable to that truth, by which he squared the rectitude of his life; when he comes, I fay, to answer that part of the charge which accuses him of attempting to overturn the popular divinities, he declares it, in the most solemn manner, as his opinion, that every one should adhere to the religion of his country a. If it should still be suspected, that this was only faid, as it made best for his defence, let us follow him in his last moments, retired amidft his philosophic friends and followers; and there we shall find him still true to this great principle, in a circumstance which hath much distressed, and still distresses, modern critics to account for; I mean the requesting his friends to facrifice a cock to Æsculapius: a piece of devotion, on some account or other, no matter what, due from him, according to the cultoms of his country, which he had neglected to perform 5.

And, without soubt, this was amongst the reasons for his declining, throughout the whole course of his life, the study and teaching of physics, or natural philosophy, which had a direct tendency to shoke and overturn one half of the national religion, namely the worship of, what were called, the celestical Ged:

he might have added a Rell; five that the philosopher was now in a delivered, occasioned by the cicuta, to which, Scribonius I argus attributes this effect. But I apprehend, the eminent persons who then attended the last moments of the expiring tailosopher (and must have been well appriled of the nature of a draught, whose legal application to criminals of state had made its effects them there were one) would have been the Loss to observe this symptom, it, indeed, the drug had any facil property. Whereas they speak of Socrates as perfectly in But

But for all this, no one the least conversant in antiquity, will, I suppose, take it into his head that these sages, because they held every one should adhere to the religion of his country, did not therefore see the gross errors of the national religions. Why then (it may be asked) this strange violation of truth amongst men who employed all their studies to evince the importance of it, in general, to

happiness?

The explanation of the riddle is easy: the GE-NIUS of their national religions taught them to conclude, THAT UTILITY AND NOT TRUTH WAS THE END OF RELIGION. And if we attentively confider those religions (formed in subserviency to the State) as is occasionally explained in the several parts of this work, we shall not much wonder at their conclusion. And then not rightly distinguishing between particular and general UTILITY; between that which arifeth from the illegitimate and the legitimate, administration of civil policy, they universally embraced this other false conclusion, THAT UTILITY AND TRUTH DO NOT COINCIDE . From this latter principle, a third necessarily arose, THAT IT WAS LAWFUL AND EXPEDIENT TO DE-CEIVE FOR THE PUBLIC GOOD. This all the ancient philosophers embraced: and Tully, on the authority of Plato, thinks it so clear, that he calls the doing otherwise NEFAS, a borrid wickedness. The famous Scævola, the Roman pontiff, frankly declares his opinion, as St. Austin tells us, "that

his fenses when he made this request; and I think They are rather to be relied on who understood what related both to the facrifice and the drug, than They who know so little of either; especially as we find this rite was exactly suitable to the foregoing declaration of Conformity, in his defence before his judges.

c See the contrary proposition proved towards the begining

of the fixth fection of the third book.

"focieties should be deceived in religion d." The last mentioned author goes on: "Varro, speaking of religions, says plainly, that there are many truths which it is not expedient the vulgar should know; and many falshoods which yet it is useful for the people to receive as truths c." Upon which the Father remarks, "Here you have the whole arcana of state f." As we go along, we shall find this maxim universally received by the theissical philosophers.

I would only observe, that it appears from hence, that the principles, which induced the ancient sages to deem it lawful to Lye or deceive for the public good, had no place in the *nature*, or in the consonant propagation of the Jewish and Christian religions.

II. My fecond general reason was, that the ancient sages did actually say one thing when they thought another. This appears from that general practice in the Greek philosophy, of a twofold doctrine; the external and the internal; a vulgar and a secret  $\varepsilon$ . The first openly taught to all; and the second confined to a select number. Nor were they different doctrines or subjects, but one and the

d Expedire existimat falli in religione civitates. De Civ. Dei, l. iv. c. 10.

Varro de religionibus loquens, evidenter dicit, multa effe vera, que vulgo feire non fit utile; multaque, que tameth falia fint, aliter existimare populum expediat.

Hic certe totum confilium prodidit sapientium, per quos

civitates et populi regerentur.

5 If this truth had not the directest proof, or needed any other than what is given above, it might be supported by the very language used in speaking of the philosophers—is, the Indiana in Vita Proch.— in the Prochime this paragraphs. Marinus in Vita Proch.— in the Prochime this paragraphs. Themist in Patr ab Now what interior or what mysery could there be in a sect that had nothing to hide, and to communicate, with discretion? And how was this management to be carried on but by presenting one thing for another i

fame that was handled thus differently; viz. popularly and fcientifically, according to opinion, or

according to TRUTH h.

PARMENIDES, we are told, had two doctrines concerning the nature of the universe; one, in which he taught that the world had been made and would be destroyed; another, in which he said, it was ungenerated, and would never be dissolved; and that the first was his public and the second was his private teaching.

\* Duplex enim erat doctrinæ genus apud antiquas gentes, drustes, no bridenio, doctrina vulgaris & doctrina arcana; idque non tantum ob diversitatem materiæ, sed eandem sæpe materiam duplici modo tractabant, populari & philosophica. Archæol. Phil. 1. i. c. 3.—See this matter explained at large by the very learned author of the Critical inquiry into the officians and practice of the ancient philosophers, etc. second edit. Chap. xi, xii, and xiii.

. "The author of the philosophical piece commonly ascri-" bed to Origen, tays, That he fometimes complied with the pepu-" lar opinion, and declared that the universe would be one day · deilsoyed. Καὶ Παρμονίδης છે μεν το στάν υποτιθέω, ΑΙΔΙΟΝ " ΤΕ, η αγέννησε, η σφακρειος ' έξ αυτός ΕΚΦΕΥΓΩΝ ΤΗΝ ΤΩΝ " σολλών ΔΟΞΑΝ, συς λέγων εξ γην ΤΑΣ ΤΟΙ ΠΑΝΤΌΣ ΑΡΧΑΣ, " την μεν γάν, εξ έλαν το δε ατζ, εξ αίτιον, εξ ασιών ΤΟΝ ΚΟΣ-"MON EITHE OCH PESOAL. It appears too from this pailage that he spoke popularly, when he said that the world " was made, or had a beginning; and that this doctrine was " merely popular may be feen too from the following words of " Themithius. Και γάρ ὁ Παρμενίδης ἐν τοῖς πρὸς δύξαν, τὸ Βερμών " જાગારો મું το વેυγεον αξχαι, ών το μεν σύς, το εξ γην σερσαγορεύει. "It is then evident from these passages that, in his exoterics, "he gave the world both a beginning and an end. But then " in his other writings he denied that it had either. I need " not quote Cicero, Plutarch, or Eusebius to prove this; the " following verses of his own are sufficient for my present " purpose.

🐣 Αύταρ ακίνηθου μεγάλων εν στείδασι δεσμών

" EFW ANAPXON, AHAYETON, ETEL PENEZIZ & CAEGROE

" Τηθε μαλ' έπλα χθησαν, άπωσε δε συσις άληθης.

See the Critical enquiry into the opinions and practice of the ancient philosophers, p. 223. 2d odit.

That Plato followed the fame practice, we learn from his own words, who, in a letter to his friends, fays, according to Dr. Bentley's translation k, "As for the fymbol or private note you defire, to know my ferious letters, and which contain my real fentiments, from those that do not, know and more remember that God begins a ferious letter, and Gods one that is otherwise." Now had not Plato used the exoteric doctrine, or delivered things not corresponding to the real sentiments of his mind, what occasion had his friends to desire this private mark or symbol to know when he was in earnest?

GALEN fays, "Plato declares that animals have conftantly a foul, which ferves to animate and "inform their bodies: as for stones, wood, and "what we commonly call the inanimate parts of "the creation; all thefe, he fays, are quite desti-46 tute of foul. And yet in his Timæus, where " he explains his principles to his disciples and se-" lect friends, he there gives up the common no-"tion, declares that there is a foul diffused thro" "the universe, which is to actuate and pervade " every part of it. Now we are not to imagine that " in this case be is inconsistent with himself, or " maintains contrary dostrines, any more than Ariftotle " and Theophrassus are to be charged with contradic-" tion, when they delivered to their disciples their " acroatic destrines, and to the vulgar, principles of " another nature "." And, in the communication

10 Hander pår avris spipaga per å. Afyse ia (aa, ry: 2698; 32,

k See the Doctor's Remarks on the dife. of free-thinking, etc.

1 Περί δί όπ το ξυωδόλο το τερί τος έπιγολολ, όσος νε αν έπιγολλω ΣΠΟΙΔΗ (C.M ΟΣΑΣ ΑΝ ΜΗ. όγιου μέν σε φέριπολο. έμως δ' ενοί, τὸ σώνο σοξόσεχε τοι κόν συλλ. Εγάρ οι κελούσεις γιαφειν, είς οι ξάλλοι φαιερίες διωθείδουν τος είν γιας υπεθαίας έπιγολίς
Θελ άξχει, Θελ δε της πτίος. Ερ. Χίξι.

of their acroatics or arcane opinions, the philosophers were as cautious as the teachers of the my-steries were in theirs: and set about it with the same solemnity.

Synesius, a thorough Platonift, and scarce more than half a Christian, who perfectly well underflood all the intrigues of Pagan philosophy, delivers it as the plain consequence of the practice of the double dostrine, that "philosophy, when it has "attained the truth, allows the use of lies and "FICTIONS"."

After this, it will hardly need to be observed, That their external doctrine was, either the invention of sables, or the propagation of what they held to be salse: and their internal, the delivery of what they held or discovered to be the truth: Yet because a remarkable passage of Macrobius will, together with the proof of this point, tend to the surface illustration of the general subject we are upon, I shall give it at large.—"Yet it is to be understood (says this author) that the phinic locophers did not admit into every kind of disputation, the salse and sabulous, whether of their own invention or of public allowance,

α) τάς ετίας, η το ξότα, η καθίλο φάιας τὰ φότα πάθα τῶν ἀψοχῶν σαμο, τιν εθ φισιν' ἀλιλ' όταν ὁ Τιμαίω τὰν φυσικὰν Θεαρίαν
Ελιγότοις ἀκροδιλή, καθικετηθιάν ἐπιτημονικτίς, λόγοις δυναμενικς,
Αποχωρήσας ἢ τεξ πείνιιξ διαθίαι, εἰς όλον σια εριο ἐκἐταθαι λέγκι
τὰν ψυχλωί αὐτά ὑβρφαιίαι, ἐ χρὰ τότο νιριζαν ἢθ ταν)ρὸς ἐκοθῷ
τάικθια λέ, οἰθο, ἀστιες ἐδὶ 'Αρισθέλος ἡ Θεοβράς κ, τὰ βὲ τος
πολλός γεγραφίτο, τὰς δὲ ἀκροδοσες τοῦς ἐταίροις. Galoni De
βάββαστία παρωτείδιου focalitative fongomentari.

And in the fame form of words:

<sup>406,</sup> Espan de Sepan i.A. Engan of balle De B. Endoie. So Porphyry in Enfebius introduces his internal doctrines.

<sup>ి</sup> గోక్ట్ జిక్ట్ భిగరతాంధితాం. కారుగిజ్క బం ఇదుగురిజిక్ట్ తెల్లేనుక్కలో ఇగ్లే ప్రక్షణం. ఇజ్ ఈజగదక్షమం... . Eighth. cv.

P The text flays, flabulesh well licits. The two last words are found in all the old editions: the more modern, for an obvi-

" but only in those which treated of the sour, or " of etherial powers, or of the other gods q. "But when their discourse ventured to raise itself "to GOD, the origin and principle of all things, "Him whom the Greeks call the GOOD and the " FIRST CAUSE; or to MIND, which the Greeks call « NOΥΣ, the offspring of the supreme God, which " contains the original species of things called "ideas, when these things, I say, MIND and the " SUPREME GOD, are the subject, then all fable "and falshood is banished from the discourse. "But still let us observe, that if, on these sub-" jects, their discourse leads them to inculcate "doctrines, which not only exceed the power of " fpeech, but even human ideas and cogitations, "they then fly to allusions, similitudes, and fi-"gures. - But then again, on the other hand, "when the discourse is of the first kind, that is, "concerning the GODS and the HUMAN SOUL, " where fable and falfhood are employed, the phi-" losophers have had recourse to this method, not. " out of an idle or fantastic humour, or to please

ous reason, dropt them. Gronovius takes notice of the sraud, and reftores them to their place; but, in order, finally, to degrade them, on a fair hearing: which he does, and puts vel f.Sa in their place. But licita is, I believe, Macrobius's own word, and fignifies, those theological fables allowed of by public authority. So that fabulofa well licita means, either fuch fables as the philosophers inventel; or such as they borrowed from the potular belief.

The text fays - de acriss at horisfue potestations; by which the author means, the first natural Gods of Gentilism, the beavenly bodies; as by - vel de ceteris Dis, he means, the fe-

cond class of false gods, dead men deified.

- ad mentem. By mind, the author here means the third hypostasis of the Platonic trinity, called is or noise. For he takes his example, of what he fays, of the conduct of the philosophers, from Plato; and illustrates an observation of his own, in this place, by a passage in that philosopher.

"their audience by an agreeable amusement; but "because they know that a naked and open ex-. " position of NATURE s is injurious to her; who, "as fhe hides the knowledge of herfelf from "groß and vulgar conceptions, by the various "covering and difguise of Forms, so it is her "pleasure, that her priests, the philosophers, "fhould treat her fecrets in fable and allegory. "And thus it is even in the facred mysteries, "where the fecret is hid, even from the ini-"tiated, under figurative and fcenical repre-"fentations t. And while princes and magi-" ftrates only, with Wifdom for their guide, are "admitted to the naked truth "; the rest may be " well content with outfide ornaments, which, at the " fame time that they excite the beholder's reve-" rence and veneration x, are contrived to fecure "the dignity of the fecret, by hiding it under "that cover from the knowledge of the Vulgar "."

t—figurarum cuniculis operiuntur, i. e. cuniculis figurarum ad representationem aptis. It alludes to the allegorical shews of the mysteries represented in subterraneous places.

v-Sapientia interprete; Wildom is here put into the office of hie-

rophant of the mysleries, who instructed the initiated in the secret.

w— summatibus tantum wiris weri arcani consciis. By these Macrobius means, heroes, princes, and legislators: alluding to their old practice of seeking initiation into the greater mysleries.

x Contenti sint reliqui ad venerationem siguris etc. is equivalent

to Contenti sint reliqui aptis venerationi figuris.

y Sciendum est tamen non in omnem disputationem philosophos admittere fabulosa vel licita, sed his uti solent, vel cum de anima, vel de aëriis atheriisve potestatibus, vel de ceteris Dis, loquuntur. Ceterum cum ad summum et principem omnium Deum,

s—quia sciunt inimicam esse naturae opertum nudamque expessititionemque sui. He alludes here to the danger of explaining openly the physical nature of the heavenly bodies, because it would unsettle one half of vulgar polytheism. So Anaxagoras was accused, and some say convicted, of a capital crime for holding the sun to be a mere material mass of fire.

The first observation I shall make on this long passage is, that the SAME SUBJECT, namely, the nature of superior beings, was handled in a two-fold manner: exoterically; and then the discourse was of the national gods: esoterically; and then it was of the first cause of all things. 2. That the exoteric teaching admitted fable and falshood, fabulosa vel licita: the esoteric, only what the teacher believed to be true, nibil fabulosum penitus. 3. That what was taught the Vulgar concerning the HUMAN SOUL was of the exeteric kind. 4. That the teaching of fables was one thing; and the teaching in fables, or by figurative expressions, quite another: the first being the cover of error; the fecond the vehicle of truth: that the passions and prejudices of men made the first necessary; that the latter became unavoidable thro' the weakness of human conception. This distinction was useful and seasonable, as the not attending to it, in those late times, in which Macrobius wrote, was the occasion of men's confound-

qui apud Gracos τάγαθον, qui σεωτον αίτιον nuncupatur, tractatus se audet attollere; vel ad mentem quam Græci ver appellant, originales rerum species, quæ idia dictæ sunt, continentem, ex summo natam et profectam Deo: cum de his, inquam, loquuntur, summo Deo et mente nihil fabulosum penitus attingunt. Sed fi quid de his assignare conantur, quæ non fermonem tantummodo, fed cogitationem quoque humanam superant, ad similitudines et exempla confugiunt — De Diis autem, ut dixi, ceteris, et de anima non frustra se, nec, ut oblectent, ad fabulofa convertunt; sed quia sciunt inimicam esse naturæ apertam nudamque expositionem sui : quæ sicut vulgaribus hominum fensibus intellectum sui vario rerum tegmine operimentoque fubtraxit; ita a prudentibus arcana fua voluit per fabulofa tractari. Sie ipfa enderia figurarum cuniculis operiuntur, ne vel hæc adeptis nuda rerum talium fe natura præbeat: sed summatibus tantum viris, Sapientia interprete, veri arcani confciis; contenti fint reliqui ad venerationem figuris defendentibus a vilitate fecretum. In Somn. Scip. lib. i. Q. 2.

ing these two ways of teaching, with one another.

From all this it appears, that a right conception of the nature of the DOUBLE DOCTRINE was deemed the TRUE KEY to the ancient Greek philosophy.

On which account feveral writers of the lower ages composed discourses on the hidden doctrines of the philosophers<sup>2</sup>. But as these, which would have given much light to the subject, are not come down to us, we must be content to feel out our way to the original and end of the double dostrine as well as we are able. For it is not enough, that this method of teaching was general amongst the Greek philosophers: to bring it to our point, we must prove it was invented for the good of society.

The original is little understood. It hath been generally supposed owing either to a barbarous love of mystery; or a base disposition to deceive. Toland, who made it the study of a wretched life, to shed his venom on every thing that was great and respectable, sometimes a suppose this double dostrine the iffue of crast and roguery; at other times, a grave and wise provision against the bigotry and superstition of the Vulgar. And a different fort of man, the celebrated Fontenelle, when he calls mystery, which is the consequence of the double dostrine, the apanage of barbarity, does as little justice to antiquity.

I shall shew first, that those, from whom the Greeks borrowed this method of philosophising, invented it for the service of Society. And secondly,

Zacynthus fcripfit τα ἀπόξξηθα τῆς Φιλοσοφίας, referente Laertio, Porphyrius τῶν Φιλοσόρων τὰ ἀπόξξηθα, teste Eunapio in ejus vita.

<sup>\*</sup> See his Tetradymus, in what he calls, Of the exoteric and eloteric philosophy.

that those who borrowed it, employed it for that purpose; however it might at length degenerate

into craft and folly b.

First, then, it is confessed by the Greeks themfelves that all their learning and wisdom came from Egypt; fetched from thence either immediately by their own philosophers, or brought round to them by the eastern Sages by the way of Asia. In this, the Greeks are unanimous. Now Herodotus, Diodorus Siculus, Strabo, Plutarch, all te-

One of the Anfaverers of the Divine Legation fays, "What a noble field would have been here opened for the Fathers, could they have charged the Pagan fages and philosophers with the diffimulation which Mr. W. has here done? Could they have loaded them with the crime of believing one thing and teaching another, with Lying, with imposing on the credutity of the people; what a display of rhetoric should we have had? could there have been a more fit occasion for fatire or declamation—BUT THEY NEVER REPROACH THEM ON THAT ACCOUNT."—Dr. Sykes's Exam. p. 88. Now, reader, cast thine eye upon the following passages from the Fathers.

Arnobius, speaking of this custom of believing one thing and teaching another, says: Nunc vero, cum aliud creditis et aliud fingitis, et in eos estis contumeliosi, quibus id attribuitis, quod eos, consistemini non esse: et irreligiosi esse monstramini, cum id adoratis quod singitis, non quod in re esse,

ipsaque in veritate censetis. L. iii. p. 109. Lugd. ed.

Eusebius reproaches Plato on this very account: charges him with mean diffimulation for teaching doctrines which he believed to be false, merely out of reverence to the laws of his country. Καὶ τὸ το δολ γινρικ δε ταύτα λέγειν τῶν νόμων ἔνεκα διαξερίδην παρίτησιν ὁμολογήσα, ότι δεοι ἀπριέθες τῷ νόμω πιρεύθεν αὐτοῖς. Præp. Evang. xiii. c. 1. — ἀλλὰ γας τάτων δὲ χάςιν ἀπολειτίω ἡμῖν ἔτω, δίει θανατα τὸν Αθπαίων δῆμιν καθυποκεινάμενω. c. 15.

LACTANTIUS reproves Cicero for the same practice: Cum videamus etiam doctos et prudentes viros, cum religionum intelligant vanitatem, nihilominus tamen in iis ipsis, quæ damnant, colendis, NESCIO QUA PRAVITATE, perstare. Intelligebat Cicero salsa esse, quæ homines adorarent: nam cum multa dixisset, quæ ad eversionem religionum valerent; ait tamen

ftify that the Egyptian priests, with whom the learning of the place resided, had a TWOFOLD PHILOSOPHY, the one hidden and facred, the other

open and vulgar °.

To know their end in this way of teaching, we must consider their character. Ælian tells us d, that in the most early times, the priests, amongst the Egyptians, were judges and magistrates. So that the care of the people must needs be their chief concern under both titles: and as well

non esse illa vulgo disputanda, ne susceptas publice religiones disputatio talis extinguat: Quid ei facies, qui, cum errare se sentiat, ultro ipse in lapides impingat, ut populus omnis offendat? Ipse sibi oculos eruat, ut omnes cæci sint? Qui nec de aliis bene mereatur, quos patitur errare; nec de seipso, qui alienis accedit erroribus; nec utitur tandem sapientiæ suæ bono, ut sactis impleat, quod mente percepit. Div. Instit. 1. ii. c. 3.

St. Austin's account of Seneca is not at all more favourable. Sed iste quam philosophi quasi liberum \* fecerunt, tamen quia illustris populi Romani Senator erat, colebat quod reprehendebat; agebat, quod arguebat; quod culpabat, adorabat. — Eo damnabilius, quod illa quæ mendaciter agebat sic ageret, ut populus veraciter agere existimaret. De civ. Dei, l. vi. c. 10.

But this Father concludes all the Pagan fages and philosophers under the same condemnation, for imposing (as Dr. Sykes expresses it) on the credulity of the people, and with satire and declamation enough of conscience, if that will satisfy the Doctor. — Quod utique non aliam ob causam factum videtur, nisi quia homines velut prudentium et sapientium negotium suit, populum in religionisus fallere, et in eo ipsonon solum colere, sed imitari et am Dæmones. Sicut enim Dæmones nisi eos quos sallendo deceperint, possidere non possiunt, sic et homines principes non sane justi sed Dæmonum similes, ea quæ vana esse noverant, religionis nomine populis tanquam vera suadebant, hoc modo eos civili societati velut arctius alligantes. De civit. Dei, l. iv. c. 132.

 $^{\circ}$  Ο ( Γεράς — ΔΥΟ ΛΟΓΟΥΣ έχολες, ὧν τὸν μὲν Γερὸν κὴ αθειτθέν —  $_{\hat{0}}$  δὲ ἐμφανὴς κὴ αφόχεις $_{\circ}$ . — Περί Ισιδ. κὴ Όσις.

 $H_3$ 

d Var. Hift. 1. xiv. c. 34.

<sup>\*</sup> Alluding to the Stoical wife man.

what they divulged, as what they concealed, must be equally for the sake of Society. Accordingly we find them to have been the first who taught intercourse with the Gods, a future state of rewards and punishments, and initiation into MY-STERIES, instituted for the support of that belief: The sample of which were the doctrines of the UNITY.

But Plutarch assures us of this truth where he tells us, that it was chiefly to their kings and magistrates, to whom the SECRET doctrines of the college were revealed. "The kings were chosen " (fays he) either out of the priefthood, or the "foldiery: as this order for their valour, and " that for their wisdom, were had in honour and "reverence. But when one was chosen out of " the foldiery, he was forthwith had to the col-"lege of the priests, and instructed in their se-"cret philosophy; which involves many things "in fables and allegories, where the face of truth is feen, indeed, but clouded and obscured e." And in the fame manner, and with the fame view, the Magi of Persia, the Druids of Gaul, and the Brachmans of India, the genuine offfpring of the Egyptian priefts, and who, like them, shared in the administration of the State, had all their external and internal doctrines f.

What hath missed both ancient and modern writers to think the *double dostrine* to be only a barbarous and felfish art of keeping up the repu-

<sup>•</sup> Ci δε βασιλείς ἀπεθείκιυθο μίβι ἐκ τῶν ἱεξέων ἢ τῶν μαχίμων, τὰ μβι δι ἀιδρίων, τὰ δε διὰ σοφίων, γθίως ἀξίωμα, κὰ τιμίω ἐχοθιων, δε ἐκ μαχίμων ἀποδεδε, γμβιων όθος ἐγίνελο τῶν ἱερέων, κὰ μεθείχε τῆς φιλοσοφίας ἐπιπεκρυμμένης τὰ σολλὰ μυθοις κὰ λόγοις ἀμυδρές ἐμφασεις τῆς ἀληθείας κὰ 2]αφάσεις ἔχυσιν. Πιελ ΙΣ. κὰ ΟΣ. Ετεph. ed.

tation of the teacher, was a prevailing opinion, that moral and natural truths were concealed under the ancient fables of the gods and heroes. For then, these fables must have been invented by the ancient fages; and invented for the fake of explaining them, and nothing more. So the learned Master of the Charter-house, taking it for granted that the fages were the inventors of the ancient mythology, concludes that one of these two things was the original of the double doctrine: "It arose "either from the genius of antiquity, especially " of the orientalists; or else from the affectation " of making important things, difficult, and not "eafily understood at first fight?." But that way of allegorizing the ancient fables was the invention of the later Greek philosophers. The old Pagan mythology was only the corruption of hiftorical tradition; and consequently arose from the people; whose follies and prejudices gave birth to the double doctrine, to be employed for their fervice. But what it was that facilitated its use, we shall see hereafter, when we come, in the fourth book, to fpeak of the Egyptian HIEROGLYPHICS.

Secondly, We fay, the Greeks, who borrowed this method of the double dollrine, employed it, like the Egyptians, who invented it, TO THE USE OF SOCIETY.

I. The first who went out of Greece to learn Egyptian wisdom, were the LEGISLATORS: Or such as, projecting to reduce the scattered tribes, which then over-ran Greece, into civil society, travelled thither to learn the ART of LAWGIVING, from a people the most celebrated for that know-

<sup>5</sup> Sive id factum fuerit pro ingenio priscorum hominum, maxime orientalium; sive ut ea, quæ pulchra erant, difficilia redderent, neque primo intuitu discernenda. Archayl. Pl.: 1. i. c. 3.

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ledge. These, as Orpheus, Rhadamanthus, Minos, Lycaon, Triptolemus, and others, concerned themselves with nothing of the Egyptian wisdom, but this only: and received the double dostrine along with it; as appears from their instituting the MYSTERIES (where that doctrine was practised) in their several civil establishments.

2. The next fort of men who went from Greece to Egypt for instruction (though the intercourse of the lawgivers with Egypt was not interrupted, but continued down to the times of Draco, Lycurgus, and Solon) were the NATURALISTS; who, throughout their whole course, bore the name of sophits. For now Greece being advanced from a favage and barbarous state, to one of civil policy, the inhabitants, in consequence of the cultivation of the arts of life, began to refine and speculate. But physics and mathematics wholly ingrossed the early fophists, such as Thales, Anaximander, Anaximenes, Xenophanes, Parmenides, and Leucippus. For as these studies were managed systematically and fitted to the vain and curious temper of that people, this, as the post of honour, would be first feized upon. Besides Greece being at that time over-run with petty TYRANTS h, the descendants of their ancient HEROES, it was found unfafe to turn their speculations upon morals; in which politics were contained, and made so eminent a part. All then that this fecond class of adventurers learnt of the Egyptians, was PHYSICAL AND MATHEMATICAL KNOWLEDGE: and as in the cultivation of this there was little occasion for, so their character, of mere naturalists, made them

h Δυναθοβέςας ή βροφένης της Έλλαθθο, η τών χεμμάταν των είδητιν έτι μάλλον η σχότεςον σοιαμένης, τὰ σολλά τυχαννόες ἐν ταῦς επιλετε καθίταθο, τῶν σεροσόδαν μειζόνων γυγνομένων. Hift. l.i.

have less regard to, the double doctrine. And in effect, we find little mention of it amongst the first Greek sophists, who busied themselves only in these enquiries.

3. The last fort of people, who went to Egypt for instruction, were the PHILOSOPHERS, properly fo called. A character exactly compounded of the two preceding, the lawgiver and the naturalist. For when now, after various struggles, and revolutions, the Grecian states had afferted, or regained their liberties, MORALS, public and private, would become the subject most in fashion. From this time the Grecian fages became violently given to Legislation, and were actually employed in making laws for the feveral emerging common-wealths: hence Aristotle observed, that, "the best law-"givers in ancient Greece, were amongst the " middle rank of men." The first (as well as most famous) of this class, and who gave philosophy its name and character, was Pythagoras. He, and Plato, with others, travelled into Egypt, like their predecessors. But now having joined in one, the two different studies of lawgiving and philofophy, a flight tincture of Egyptian instruction would not ferve their purpose: to complete their character, there was a necessity of being throughly imbued with the most hidden wisdom of Egypt. Accordingly, the ancients tell usi, of their long abode there, their hard conditions of admittance into the facred colleges, and their bringing away with them all the fecret science of the priesthood. The refult of all was, and it is worth our observation, that, from this time, the Greek for bifts, (now called philosophers) began to cultivate the

i Porph. De vita Pythag. — Strabo de Platone, 1. xvii. Geogr, — Origen Comm. in Eq. ad Rom. c. iii.

belief of a future state of rewards and punishments, and, at the very same time, the prastice of the double dostrine: which two principles were the distin-

guishing badges of their character.

Thus, by an intimate acquaintance with the Egyptian priefthood, the Greeks, at length, got amongst themselves a new species of sages, whose character much resembled that of their masters. But with this difference, that amongst the Egyptian priests (and so amongst the Magi, the Brachmans, and the Druids) philosophy was an appendix to legislation; while amongst the Greeks, legislation was but the appendix to philosophy. For philosophy was the first acquest of the Greek fages; and legislation, of the Egyptian. There was yet another difference; which was, that, in the Greek sopbist, the two characters of LEGISLATOR and PHILOSOPHER were always kept diffinct, and conducted on contrary principles: whereas in the Egyptian priest, they were incorporated, and went together. So that in Greece, the hidden doctrines of the mysteries, and the wifeinτα of the schools, though sometimes sounded by one and the same person, as by Pythagoras, were two very different things; but in Egypt, still one and the fame.

Greece was now well fettled in popular communities; and yet this legislating humour still continued. And when the philosophers had no more work, they still kept on the trade; and from practical, became speculative lawgivers. This gave birth to a deluge of visionary Republics, as appears from the titles of their works preserved by Diogenes Laertius; where, one is always as sure to find a treatise De legibus, or De republica, as a treatise, De deo, De anima, or De mundo.

But

But of all the fects, the Pythagoreans and Platonists continued longest in this humour. The Academics and Stoics, including to the disputatious genius of the Greek philosophy, struck out into a new road; and began to cultivate the last great branch of philosophy, logic; especially the Stoics, who, from their great attachment to it, were furnamed dialectici.

The reader hath here a fhort view of the progress of the GREEK PHILOSOPHY; which Plato aptly divided into PHYSICS, MORALS, and LOGIC k. We have shewn that this was the order of their birth: the study of physics and mathematics began while Greece groaned under its petty tyrants: morals public and private arose with their civil liberties: and logic, when they had contracted a habit of disputation and resinement.

But when now the liberties of Greece began to be again shaken by tyrants of greater form and power, and every nobler province of science was already possessed and occupied by the sect above mentioned; some ambitious men, as Epicurus, attempted to revive the splendor of ancient physics by an exclusive cultivation of them; rejecting logic, and all the public part of Morals, politics and legislation: and, with them, in consequence, (which deserves our notice) the use of the double doctrine, as of no service in this reform. An evident proof of its having been employed only for the sake of society: for were it, as To-

k Μέρη δε φιλιστιφίας τρία, ΦΥΣΙΚΟΝ, ΗΘΙΚΟΝ, ΔΙΛΑΕΚΤΙ-ΚΟΝ. Diog. Laert. Proæm. § 18.

<sup>1</sup> Clemens Alex. indeed, Strom. 5. fays, that "the Epicu"reans bragged they had their fecrets, which it was not law"ful to divulge;" but this was plainly only arrogating to
themselves a mark of philosophy, which these, to whom it
really belonged, had made venerable.

land pretends, for their own, it had found its use chiefly in physics; because the celestial bodies being amongst the popular Gods, enquiries into their physical effence would hardly escape the public odium: Plutarch tells us how heavily it fell both upon Protagoras and Anaxagoras m. Notwithstanding this, the first and the last of the Sophists, who dealt only in physics, equally rejected the double doctrine. While on the other hand, the legislating philosophers employed this very doctrine even in natural enquiries. We are told, that Pythagoras's popular account of earthquakes was, that they were occasioned by a synod of ghosts asfembled under ground n. But Jamblichus o informs us, that he fometimes predicted earthquakes by the tafte of well-water P.

m 'Ο γας ωςῶτω σαφές αίου γε ωάιθωυ κ) θαςξαλεωταθου ωξεί Σελήνης καθαυγασμῶν κ) σκιᾶς λόγων εἰς γραφὴν καθαθέωμω 'Αναξαγόςας, ἔτ' αὐτὸς ἦν ωαλαιὸς, ἔτε ὁ λόγω ἔνδοξω, ἀλλ' λπόξητω ἔτι, κ) δι' ὀλίγων, κ) μετ' δύλαβείας τινὸς ἢ ωίτεως βαδιζων κ) γας ἢνείχονο τὸς φυσικὸς κ) μεξεωςολέσχας τότε καλωμένες ώς εἰς κὶτίας ἀλόγως κ) δυνάμεις ἀπερικότως κ) καθηταθκασμένα ωάθη λ]ατείδοθας τὸ θεῖου ἀλλὰ κ) Περθαγόςας ἔφιγε κ) 'Αναξαγόςαν εἰςχθένα μόλις σειποιήσαθο Περικλής. Vit. Niciæ.

n Ælian. Var. Hist. 1. iv. c. 17.
o Jamblicus Vit. Pythag. 1. i. c. 23.

Pone scarce meets with any thing in antiquity concerning Pythagoras's knowledge in physics, but what gives us fresh cause to admire the wonderful sagacity of that extraordinary man. This story of his predicting earthquakes, has so much the air of a fable, that I believe it has been generally ranked (as it is by Stanley) with that heap of trash, which the enthusiastic Pythagoreans and Platonists of the lower ages have raked together concerning him. Yet a late relation, which I am about to quote, will shew, that altho' posterity could not profit by his knowledge, it has at least confirmed the veracity of this part of his history. Paul Dudley Esq. in the Philos Transat. No 437. p. 72. speaking of an earthquake which lately happened in New England, gives this reasonable and remarkable account of it: "A neighbour of mine that has a Well thirty-six feet "deep, about three days before the earthquake, was surprized

It appears then, on the whole, that the double dostrine was used for the sake of society; their high notions of which made them conclude the practice not only to be innocent, but laudable: whereas, were the motive either love of mystery, of fraud, or of themselves, it cannot be reconciled to any of

their feveral fystems of private morals.

III. My third general reason was, that the ancient sages seemed to practise the double doctrine, in the point in question. I have observed, that those fects which joined legislation to philosophy, as the Pythagoreans, Platonists, Peripatetics, and Stoics, always professed the belief of a future state of rewards and punishments: while those, who fimply philosophifed, as the Cyrenaic, the Cynic, and the Democritic, publicly professed the contrary. And just as those of the legislating class were more or less in the practice of that art, so were they more or less in the profession of a future state: as on the one hand, the Pythagoric and Platonic; and on the other, the Peripatetic and Stoic. Nay in one and the same sect, as the Peripatetic, and the Stoic, when a follower of it studied legislation, he professed this belief; when he confined himself to private morals, or abstract speculations, he rejected it. Thus Zeno, amongst the Stoics, was a great affertor of it; while Epictetus openly denied it. And Seneca, who was but a mongrel, feems willing to expose the whole mystery. For in those parts of his writings, where he strictly philoso-

<sup>&</sup>quot; to find his water, that used to be very sweet and limpid, "flink to that degree that they could make no use of it, nor " fcarce bear the house when it was brought in; and think-"ing fome carrion was got into the Well, he fearched the bottom, but found it clear and good, though the colour of "the water was turned wheyish, or pale. In about seven days " after the earthquake, his water began to mend, and in three "days more returned to its former fweetness and colour."

phises, he denies a future state; and in those, where he acts the preacher or politician, he maintains it; and having, in this character, said what he thought sit in it's behalf, is not ashamed to add: "Hæc" autem omnia ad MORES spectant, itaque suo loco posita sunt: at quæ a dialecticis contra hanc opinionem dicuntur, segreganda suerunt: et ideo feposita sunt q." As much as to say, the doctrine was preached up as useful to society, but intenable by reason. One might push this observation from sects to particulars. So Xenophon and Isocrates, who concerned themselves much in the public, declared for it; and Hippocrates and Galen, who consined themselves to natural studies, are inclined to be against it.

This totally enervates what might be urged for the common opinion, from those many professions in the writings of the theistical philosophers, in favour of a future state of rewards and punishments; as it shews that those professions only made part of the EXTERNAL or popular doctrines of fuch fects r. It may likewife help to explain and reconcile an infinite number of discordances in their works in general; and more especially on this point, which are commonly, tho, I think falfly, ascribed to their inconstancy. How endless have been the disputes amongst the learned, since the revival of letters, about what Plato, Aristotle, and the Stoics held of the foul? But it was not the moderns only who found themselves at a loss; fometimes the ancients themselves were embarassed.

9 Ep. 103.

r Yet neither fo obvious a truth, nor the notice here given of it, could prevent the numerous writers against this book from perpetually urging, one from another, those professions in the EXOTERIC writings of the philosophers, as a consutation of what is here delivered concerning their REAL SENTIMENTS.

Plutarch complains heavily of the repugnances of the Stoics: and in his tract fo intituled, accuses Chrysippus, now, for laughing at the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments, as a Mormo, fit only to frighten women and children; and now again, for affirming seriously, that, let men laugh as they pleased, the thing was a sober truth.

IV. My fourth general reason is gathered from the opinion which antiquity itself seems to have had of its philosophers on this point. The gravest writers (as we fee in part, by the quotations above, from Timæus, Polybius, and Strabo) are full of apologies for the national religions; that is, for what was taught in them, concerning a providence here, and especially concerning the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments hereafter. They pretend that these things were necessary to keep the people in awe; but frankly own, that, was fociety composed all of wife men, THE RELIGION OF THE PHILOSOPHERS, which inforces morality by confiderations drawn from the excellence of virtue, the dignity of our nature, and the perfection of the human foul, would be a fitter and more excellent way to good. Now, the national religions, as they taught a doctrine of a future state, being here opposed to the religion of the philosophers, which employed other motives, I conclude, that, in the opinion of these apologists, the philosophers did not really believe this doctrine.

V. My last general argument against the common opinion, is collected from an extraordinary circumstance in the Roman bistory. CABAR, in his speech to the senate, to disturd them from punishing the followers of Catiline with death, argues, "that death was no evil, as they, who inflicted it for a punishment, imagined, and intended it "should

" should be made." And thereon takes occasion, with a licentiousness till then unknown to that august affembly, to explain and inforce the avowed principles of Epicurus (of whose sect he was) concerning the mortality of the foul's. Now when CATO and CICERO, who urged the death of the conspirators, come to reply to his argument for lenity; instead of opposing the principles of that philosophy by the avowed principles of a better, they content themselves with only saying, that "the doc-"trine of a future state of rewards and punish-"ments was delivered down to them from their " ancestors t." From this cold manner of evading the argument, by retiring under the opinion of their Forefathers, I conclude, that these two great patriots were conscious that the real opinion of ancient philosophy would not support them: for nothing was more illogical than their reply, it being evidently that authority of their ancestors, which Cæsar opposed with the principles of the Greek philosophy. Here then was a fair challenge to a philosophic inquiry: and can we believe, that Cicero and Cato would have been lefs favourably heard, while they defended the doctrine of a future state on the principles of Plato and Zeno, so agreable to the opinions of their ancestors, than Cæsar was in

s De pœna, possum equidem dicere id quod res habet; in luctu atque miseriis, mortem ærumnarum requiem, non cruciatum esse; eam cuncta mortalium mala dissolvere; ultra neque curæ, neque gaudio locum esse. Cæsar apud Sall. de Bell. Catilin.

Cæsar (says Cato) bene et composite paulo ante, in hoc ordine, de vita et morte disseruit, credo salsa existumans ea quæ de inferis MEMORANTUR. Apud eund. Cicero's reply is to the same purpose: Itaque ut aliqua in vita formido improbis esset posita, apud inferos ejusmodi quædam illi antiqui supplicia impiis constituta esse voluerunt: quod videlicet intelligebant, his remotis, non esse mortem ipsam pertimescendam. Orat. iv. in Catilin. § 4.

overthrowing it on the fystem of Epicurus? Or was it of small importance to the state, that an opinion, which Tully, in the words below, tells us was established by their ancestors for the service of fociety, should be shewn to be conformable to the conclusions of the most creditable philosophy? Yet, for all this, instead of attempting to prove Cæfar a bad philosopher, they content themselves with only shewing him to be a bad citizen. We must needs conclude then, that these two learned men were fufficiently apprized, that the doctrine of their ancestors was unsupported by the real opinion of any Greek fest of philosophy; whose popular Profession of it would have been to no purpose to have urged against Cæsar, and such of the fenate as were instructed in these matters; because the practice of the double dostrine, and the part to which this point belonged, was a thing well known to them.

It may be true, that as to Cato, who was a rigid Stoic, this observation on his conduct will conclude only against one sect; but it will conclude very strongly: for Cato was so far from thinking that the principles of that philosophy should not be brought into the conclusions of state, where it could be done with any advantage, that he was even for having public measures regulated on the standard of their paradoxes; for which he is agreeably ridiculed by Cicero in his oration for Muræna. He could not then, we must think, have neglected so fair an opportunity of employing his beloved philosophy upon Cæfar's challenge, would it have served his purpose in any reasonable degree.

But though Cato's case only includes the Stoics; yet Cicero's, who made use indifferently of the principles of any sect to consute the rest, includes them all. It will be said perhaps, that the reason Vol. II.

why he declined replying on any philosophic principle was because he thought the opinion of their ancestors the strongest argument of all; having so declared it, in a more evident point, the very being of a God itself: In QUOD, MAXIMUM EST MA-JORUM NOSTRORUM SAPIENTIA, qui facra, qui cerimonias", &c. But it is to be observed, that this was spoken to the People, and recommended to them as an argument they might best conside in; and therefore urged with Tully's usual prudence, who always fuited his arguments to his auditors; while the words under question were addressed in the fenate; to an audience, which had at that time as great an affectation to philosophife as Cicero himself. Hear what he says in his oration for Muræna: Et quoniam non est nobis hæc oratio habenda aut cum imperita multitudine, aut in aliquo conventu agrestium, audacius paulo de STUDIIS HUMANITATIS QUÆ et MIHI et VOBIS NOTA ET JUCUNDA funt, disputabox.

## SECT. III.

AVING premifed this to clear the way, and abate men's prejudices against a new opinion, I come to a more particular enquiry concerning each of those Sects which have been supposed to believe the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments.

The ancient Greek philosophy may be all ranged in the Eleatic, the ITALIC, and the Ionic lines. The Eleatic line was wholly composed of atheists of different kinds; as the Democritic, the Pyrrhonian, the Epicurean, &c. so these come not into the account. All in the Italic line derive

themselves from Pythagoras, and swear in his name. All in the Ionic, till Socrates, busied themselves only in physics, and are therefore likewise out of the question: He was the first who brought philosophy out of the clouds, to a clearer contemplation of Human nature; and sounded the Socratic school, whose subdivisions were the Platonic or Old Academy, the Peripatetic, the Stoic, the Middle, and the New Academy.

As to Socrates, Cicero gives this character of him, that He was the first who called philosophy from beaven, to place it in cities, and introduce it into private houses, i. e. to teach public and private morals. But we must not suppose, that Cicero simply meant, as the words feem to imply, that Socrates was the first of the philosophers, who studied morals; this being evidently false; for the Pythagoric fchool had, for a long time before, made morals its principal concern. He must therefore mean (as the quotation below partly implies) that HE was the first who called off philosophy from a contemplation of nature, to fix it ENTIRELY upon morals. Which was fo true, that Socrates was not only the first, but the last of the philosophers that made this feparation; having here no followers, unlefs we reckon Xenophon; who upbraids Plato, the immediate fucceffor of his school, for forfaking his master's confined scheme, and imitating the com-

y Primus Philosophiam devocavit e cœlo, et in urbibus collocavit, et in domos etiam introduxit. Tuscul. Quæst. lib. v. And again, Acad. l. i. Socrates mihi videtur, id quod constat inter omnes, primus a rebus occultis, et ab ipsa natura involutis, in quibus omnes ante eum philosophi eccupati suerunt, evocavisse Philosophiam, et ad vitam communem adduxisse, ut de virtutibus et vitiis, omninoque de bonis rebus et malis quæreret; cælestia autem vel procul esse a nostra cognitione censeret, vel, si maxime cognita essent, nihil tamen ad bene vivendum conserve.

mon practice of the philosophers in their pursuit of

general knowledge.

However, This, which Socrates attempted in philosophy, was a very extraordinary project: and, to support its credit, he brought in those principles of DOUBT and UNCERTAINTY, which fome of his pretended followers, very much abused: For while be restrained those principles of doubt, to natural things, whose study he rejected; they extended them to every thing that was the fubject of philosophical inquiry. This we prefume was Socrates's true character: who thus confining his fearches, was (and it is remarkable) the only one of all the ancient Greek philosophers, who really believed the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments. How it happened that he was fofingularly right, will be confidered hereafter, when we bring his case to illustrate, and to confirm the general position here advanced.

From Socrates, as we faid, came the middle and New Academy, as well as the Old, or Platonic. Arcefilaus was the founder of the middle; and Carneades of the New. Between the principles of these two there was no real difference, as Cicerotells us; and we may take his word; but both, I will venture to affirm, were as real Sceptics, as the Pyrrhonians themselves: I mean in their principles of philosophifing, though not in the professed conclusions each pretended to draw from those principles. For Academics as well as Pyrrhonians agreed in this, "That nothing could be known; and " that, without interfering with any fentiments of "their own, every thing was to be difputed." Hence the Pyrrhonians concluded, "that nothing " was ever to be affented to, but the mind kept " in an eternal fuspense:" The Academics, on the contrary held, "that the PROBABLE, when found, 66 was

" was to be affented to; but, till then, they were " to go on with the Pyrrhonians, questioning, dif-" puting, and opposing every thing." And here lay the jest: they continued doing so, all the time of their existence, without ever finding the probable in any thing; except only in what was necessary to Supply them with arms for disputing against every thing. It is true, this was a contradiction in their scheme: but scepticism is unavoidably destructive of itself. The mischief was, that their allowing the probable thus far, made many, both ancients and moderns, think them uniform in their concessions: In the mean time they gave good words, and talked perpetually of their verisimile and probabile, amidst a situation of absolute darkness, and scepticism; like Sancho Pancha, of his island on the Terra Firma.

This I take to be the true key to the intrigues of the Academy; of which famous feet many have been betrayed into a better opinion than it deferved. If any doubt it, the account which Cicero himself gives of these people, will fatisfy him. He, who knew them best, and who espoused only the more reasonable part of their conduct, tells us, that they held nothing could be known, or so much as perceived: Nihil cognosci, nihil percipi,

This was Lucian's opinion of the Academics; and no body knew them better: For, speaking of the happy island, in his true History, and telling us in what manner it was stocked with the several sects of Greek philosophy; when he comes to the Academics he observes with much humour, that tho' they were in as good a disposition to come as any of the rest, they still keep aloof in the confines, and would never venture to set foot upon the island. For here truly they stuck; they were not yet satisfied whether it was indeed an island or not. This, δε Ακαδημάκως ελεγον εθέλειν μεν ελθείν, επέχειν δ' έτι, κ) Δεσακίπεσθαι' μιλ εξί γρε αθτό τετό πως καθαλαμεάνειν, εί κ) ιπούς, τις τοιαυτη έτίν. Ver. Hist. l. ii.

nihil sciri posse dixerunt --- Opinionibus et INSTI-TUTIS omnia teneri; nihil VERITATI relinqui: deinceps omnia tenebris circumfusa esse dixerunt. Itaque Arcefilaus negabat esse quidquam quod sciri posset, ne illud quidem ipsum?: That every thing was to be disputed; and that the probable was not a thing to engage their affents, or fway their judgments, but to enforce their reasonings. Carneades vero multo uberius iisdem de rebus loquebatur: non quo aperiret sententiam suam (bic enim mes erat patrius Academia Adversari semper om-NIBUS in disputando) sedb, &c.—Proprium sit Academiæ judicium suum nullum interponere, ea probare quæ fimillima veri videantur; conferre caufas, et quid in quamque sententiam dici possit expromere, nulla adhibita fua auctoritate, judicium audientium relinquere integrum et liberum<sup>c</sup>. That, though they pretended their end was to find the probable, yet, like the Pyrrhonians, they held their mind in an eternal fuspense, and continued going on disputing against every thing, without ever finding the probable to determine their judgments. And indeed how should it be otherwise, when, as Tully tells, in the case of the same Arcefilaus, they endeavoured to prove, that the moment, or weight of evidence, on each fide the question, was exactly equal - Huic rationi, quod erat confentaneum, faciebat, ut contra omnium sententias dies jam plerosque deduceret: [diceret] ut cum in eadem re paria contrariis in partibus momenta rationum invenirentur, facilius ab utraque parte adfentio sustineretur. This they held to be the case, even in the most important subjects, such as the sour. And in the most interesting questions concerning it, as

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Acad. Quaf. 1. i. c. 12, 13, b De Orat. lib. i. c. 18.

whether it was, in it's nature, MORTAL OF IMMORTAL.—Quod intelligi quale fit vix poteft: et quicquid eft, mortale fit, an æternum? Nam utraque in parte multa dicuntur. Horum aliquid vestro sapienti certum videtur: nostro ne quid maxime quidem probabile fit, occurrit: ita funt in plerisque contrariarum rationum Paria momenta.

Thus it appears, that the fect was thoroughly fceptical e: And Sextus Empiricus, a master of this argument, says no less: who, though he denies the \*\*Academics\*\* and \*\*Pyrrhonians\*\* to be exactly the same, as some ancients affirmed, because, though both agreed that truth was not to be found, yet the Academics held there was a difference in those things which pretended to it (the mystery of which has been explained above) yet owns that Arcesilaus and Pyrrho had one common philosophy f. Ori-

f Φασὶ μένδοι τινες ότι ἡ Ἀκαδημαϊκή Φιλοσοφία ἡ αὐτή ἐςι τῆ «κέψει. Ὁ μέν τι Ἀςκεσίλα, ἡ ον τῆς μέσης Ἀκαδημίας, ἐλέγοιθμ εἶαι σεος άτθω κὰ ἀςχηγὸν, στάνυ μοι δοκεῖ τοῖς Πυξξωνείοις κοινυεῖι λύγοις, ὡς μίαν δίται σχηδὸι νὴν κατ αὐτὸν ἀγωγήν κὰ την ἡμεξέςαν.

d Acad. Quaft. 1. iv. c. 115.

The reader may not be displeased to see the judgment of a learned French writer on the account here given of the Academics-L'on fait voir que l'on doit exclure de ce nombre [des fectes dogmatistes] les nouveaux Academiciens, purs sceptiques, quoy qu'il y aît quelques auteurs modernes qui pretendent le contraire, et entre autres M. Middleton, auteur de la nouvelle Vie du Ciceron Anglois. Mais si l'on éxamine la source où il a puisé ses sentimens, l'on trouvera que c'est dans les apologies que les Academiciens eux mêmes ont faites pour cacher le scepticisme qui leur étoit reproché par toutes les autres sectes; ct de cette maniere on pourroit foutenir que les Pyrrhoniens mêmes n'etoient point sceptiques. Qu'on se ressouvienne seulement que, suivant le raport de Ciceron, Arcesilaus, fondateur de la nouvelle Academie, nioit que l'on fut certain de sa propre existence. Après un trait semblable, et plusieurs autres qui sont raportes-on laisse au lecteur à décider du caractere de cette fecte et du jugement qu'en porte M. Middleton. Diff. sur l'Union de la Religion, de la Morale, et de la Politique, Pref. p. 12.

gen, or the author of the fragment that goes under his name, feems to have transcribed the opinion of those whom Sextus hints at. "But another sect of philosophers (says he) was called the Academic, because they held their disputations in the Academy. Pyrrho was the head and sounder of these: From whom they were called Pyrrhonians. He first of all brought in the Arataln Via, or incomprehensibility, as an instrument to enable them to dispute on both sides the question, without proving or deciding any thing s."

But now a difficulty arises which will require fome explanation. We have represented the Academy as entirely fceptical: We have represented Socrates as a Dogmatist; and yet on his sole authority, as we are affired by Tully, did this sect hold its principles of knowing nothing and disputing all things. The true solution seems to be this.

1. Socrates, to deter his hearers from all studies but that of morality, was perpetually representing the obscurity, in which they lay involved: not only affirming that he knew nothing of them, but that nothing could be known; while, in morals,

Hepet. Pyrrh. lib. i. c. 33. Agellius, too, assures us, that the difference between the two sects amounted to just nothing. Vetus autem quartio et a multis scriptoribus Græcis tractata est, in quid et quantum Fyrrhonios et Academicos Philosophos interst. Utrique enim NKESTIKOL ipplico), à nogoliusi, dicuntur, quoniam utrique nihil affirmant, nihilque comprehendi putant-differre tamen inter sese-vel maxime propterea existimati sunt Academici quidem ipium illud nihil posse comprehendin, quasi comprehendunt, et nihil posse decenni quasi decernunt: Pyrrhonii ne id quidem ullo pacto videri verum dicunt, quod nihil esse verum videtur. 1 ii. c. 5.

είδε verum videtur. 1 ii. c. 5.
Ε΄ Αλλη δε αίριστε φιλοσόφων έκληθη Ακαδιμαϊκή, δια τὸ ἐν τῆ ᾿Ακαδιημία τὰς διάτριδας αὐτὰς καιδίσαι, ὧν άρξας ὁ Πυξέων, ἀφ΄ ἔ Πυξέωτοι ἐκληθησαν φιλόσοφοι, τὴν ἀκαδαληψίαν ἀπάδων σεῦτΘεἐπήγαγθε, ἐς ὸπηχειρεῖ μὲν εἰς ἐκάτερα, μὴ μίντοι ἀποφαίνειδαι μηδέν.

Orio. Philosophica. weel 'Axabru.

he was a dogmatist, as appears largely by Xenophon, and the less fabulous parts of Plato. But Arcesilaus and Carneades took him at his word, when he said be knew nothing; and extended that principle of uncertainty ad onne scibile.

2. Again, the adversaries, with whom Socrates had to deal, in his project of difcrediting natural knowledge, and recommending the fludy of morality, were the Sophists properly fo called; a race of men, who by their eloquence and fallacies, had long kept up the credit of phyfics, and much vitiated the purity of morals: And These being the oracles of science at that time in Athens, it became the modesty and humility of his pretenfions, to attack them covertly, and rather as an enquirer than a teacher. This produced the way of disputing by interrogation; from the inventor, called the Socratic: And as this could not be carried on but under a professed admiration of their wisdom, and acquiescence in their decisions, it gave birth to the famous Attic Irony h. Hence it appears, his method of confuting must confift in turning their own principles and conceffions against them, and advancing nothing of his own.

Now Arcefilaus and Carneades having, as we fay, extravagantly extended the Socratic principle of knowing nothing; easily miftook this other, of advancing nothing of his own, when disputing with the Sophists, as a necessary consequence of the former; and so made that a general rule for their school, which, in their master, was only an occasional practice.

b Socrates autem de se ipse detrahens in disputatione, plus tribuebat iis, quos volebat resellere. Ita cum aliud diceret atque sentiret, libenter uti solitus est ea dissimulatione, quam Græci elevatar vocant. Acad. l. ii. c. 5.

On these two mistaken principles was the New Academy erected. Omnia latere in occulto, nec esse quidquam, quod cerni aut intelligi possit: quibus de causis nihil oportere neque prositeri, neque affirmare quemquam, neque assertione approbare.

They of the Old Academy', who came first after Socrates, with more judgment, declined

i Acad. Quast. lib. i. c. 12.

k Tully affures us that those of the Old Academy were Dogmatists, Quest. Acad. lib. i. Nihil enim inter Peripateticos et ACADEMIAM illam VETEREM differebat; for that the Peripatetics were dogmatists no body ever doubted. Yet the same Tully, towards the conclusion of this book, ranks them with the fceptics, Hanc Academiam NOVAM appellabant, quæ mihi VETUS videtur; for fuch certainly was the New Academy. The way of reconciling Cicero to himfelf I take to be this: Where he speaks of the conformity between the Peripatetics and the Old Academy, he confiders Plato as the founder of the Old Academy: this appears from the following words, Academ. 1. ii. c. 5. Alter [nempe Plato] quia reliquit perfectissimam disciplinam, Peripateticos et Academicos, nominibus differentes, re congruentes: And where he speaks of the conformity between the New Academy and the Old, he considers Socrates as the founder of the Old Academy. For the New, as we here see, claimed the nearest relation to their master. Thus De Nat. Deor. 1. i. c. 5. he fays, Ut hæc in philosophia ratio contra omnia disserendi, nullamque rem apertè judicandi, profesta à Socrate, repetita ab Arcesila, confirmata à Carneade, &c. But Tully, it may be faid, in the very place where he speaks of the agreement between the New and Old Academy, understands Plato as the founder of the old: Hanc Academiam novam adpellant; quæ mihi vetus videtur, si quidem Platonem ex illa vetere numeramus; cujus in libris nihil adfirmatur, et in utramque partem multa disseruntur; de omnibus quæritur, nihil certi dicitur. But it is to be observed, that Plato had a twofold character: and is to be confidered, on the one hand, as the Disciple and Historian of Socrates; and on the other, as the Head of a Seet himself, and master of Xenocrates and Aristotle. As the disciple, he affirms nothing; as the master, he is a Dogmatist. Under the first character Socrates and he are the same; under the fecond, they are very different. Tully here speaks of him under the first, as appears from what he says of their master's method of disputation; easily perceiving that it was adapted to the occasion: and that to make it a general practice, and the characteristic of their school, would be irrational and

him, nibil adfirmatur, &c. Plato, in this place, therefore, is the same as Socrates. The not distinguishing his double character, hath occasioned much dispute amongst the ancients; as the not observing that Tully hath, throughout his writings, made that diffinction, hath much embarassed the moderns. Diogenes Laertius tells us, there were infinite disputes about Plato's character; some holding that he did dogmatize, others that he did not, 'Επεί δε πολλή τασις έτι, κή οι μέν Φασιν αυτον δο μα].-Çerr, ci d' e'. Lib. iii. Seg. 51. Sextus Empiricus says the same thing, + Πλάτωνα είν, οι μεν δοβμαλικόν έφασαν εί), οι δε άπορημαλικών. He then tells you, some distinguished better. Kala δε τι δοδματικόν. έν μεν γάρ τοις γυμνασικοίς Φασί λόγοις, ένθα ὁ Σωκεάτης εἰσάγεται ήτοι σαίζων σεός τινας η άγωνιζόμεν 🕒 σεός σοφικάς, γυμιας ικόν τε κλ απορημαδικόν Φασιν έχειν αυτόν χαρακδήρα δο Γμαδικον δε, ένθα συνδάζων, άποφαίνελαι ήτοι διά Σωκράτυς, ή Τιμαίν, ή τικ τοιέτων. That Tully made the distinction, delivered above, we shall now see, In the Academic questions, he speaks of him as the disciple and historian of Socrates; and, under that character, nihil adfirmatur, et in utramque partem multa disseruntur, de omnibus quæritur, nihil certi dicitur. In his Offices he speaks of him as different from Socrates, and the founder of a sect: and that he is a Dogmatist, and, as he says elsewhere, reliquit persectissimam disciplinam Peripateticos et Academicos nominibus differentes, re congruentes. His words to his fon are: Sed tamen nostra [nempe Academica] leges non multum a Peripateticis dissidentia, quoniam utrique et Socratici et Platonici esse volumus, i. e. He tells his son, that he would both dogmatize like Plato, and scepticize like Socrates. But Gravius not apprehending this double character of Plato, would change Socratici to Stoici. For, fays he, qui dicere potest se utrumque esse voluisse Platonicum et Socraticum; perinde est ac si scripsisset utrumque se velle esse Peripateticum et Aristoteleum. But there was a vast difference between Plato. founder of the Academy, and Socrates; though none between Plato the disciple and historian of Socrates, and Socrates.— The fortune of this note has been very fingular; and will afford us a pleafant picture of the temper and genius of answerers and their ways. One man writing something about Plato and the ancients; and reading what is here faid of Plato's dogmatizing, abuses the author for making him a dogmatist: abfurd.

absurd. But the middle and new, instead of profiting by this fage conduct of their predecessors, made it a handle to extol their own closer adherence to their mafter; and an argument that they were returned to his true principles, from which the old had licentiously digressed. A passage in Tullv will justify these observations; and these observations will explain that paffage, which, I prefume, without them would not be thought very intelligible. Thus the Roman Orator expresses himself, under the character of his fect: Primum, inquam, deprecor, ne me, tanquam philosophum, putetis scholam vobis aliquam explicaturum: quod ne in ipsis quidem philosophis magnopere unquam probavi: quando enim Socrates, qui parens philosophiæ jure dici potest, quidquam tale fecit? Eorum erat iste mos, qui tum Sophistæ nominabantur; quorum è numero primus est ausus Leontinus Gorgias in conventu poscere quæstionem, id est, jubere dicere, qua de re quis vellet audire. Audax negotium; dicerem impudens, nisi boc institutum postea translatum ad philosophos nostros esfet. Sed et illum, quem nominavi, et ceteros Sophistas, ut è Platone intelligi potest, lusos videmus a Socrate. Is enim percunctando atque interrogando elicere folebat eorum opiniones, quibuscum disserebat, ut ad ea, quæ ii respondissent, si quid videretur, diceret: Qui mos CUM A POSTERIORIBUS NON ESSET RETENTUS, Arcesilaus eum revocavit, instituitque, ut ii, qui se audire vellent, non de se quærerent, sed ipsi dicevent, quid sentirent: quod cum dixissent, ille

And another who had to do, I don't know how, with Socrates, and the moderns, and reading what relates to Plato's fcepticifing, is as plentiful, in his ribaldry and ill language, for making him a fceptic; while the author was, all the time, giving an historical relation of what others made him; and only endeavoured to reconcile their various accounts.

contra<sup>1</sup>. Here Cicero has gilded the false, but artful pretences of his sect: which not only represented their scepticism, as a return to the true principles of Socrates; but would have the dogmatic sects of philosophy, against all evidence of antiquity, the later product of that race of Sophists, with whom the venerable Athenian had to do. But the Old Academy, we may be sure, thought differently of the matter: Lucullus says of Arcesilaus, Nonne cum jam philosophorum disciplinæ gravissimæ constitissent, tum exortus est ut in optima Rep. Tiberius Gracchus, qui otium perturbaret, sic Arcesilaus, qui constitutam philosophiam everteret m.

However these bold pretensions of restoring the Socratic school to its integrity, deluded many of the ancients; and made them, as particularly Diogenes Laertius, to rank Socrates in the number of the Sceptics.

But this is not strange, for it was in the fashion of all the sects to pretend relation to Socrates. Proseminatæ sunt samiliæ dissentientes, et multum disjunctæ et dispares, cum tamen omnes se philosophi Socraticos et dici vellent et esse arbitrarentur, says Cicero. And again, Fuerunt etiam alia genera philosophorum sere qui se omnes Socraticos esse dicebant: Eretricorum, Herilliorum, Megaricorum, Pyrrhoneorum. The same thing, I believe, Apuleius, meant to express, when speaking of Socrates he says,—cum nunc etiam egregii Philosophi sestam ejus sanssissimam præoptent, et summo beatitudinis studio jurent in ipsus nomen.

<sup>1</sup> De Fin. Bon. et Mal. ii. c. 1.

m Acad. l. ii. c. 5. n De Orat. lib. iii.

o Metam, 1. x.

On the whole it appears that the Academics, (middle and new) as distinguished from the Platonists, were mere Sceptics; and so, like the Pyrrhonians, to be thrown out of the account.

Those therefore which remain, are the Pythagoric, the Platonic, the Peripatetic, and the Stoic: And if it be found that none of these four renowned schools, (the Philosophic Quaternion of dogmatic Theists,) did believe, tho all sedulously taught, the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments, the reader, perhaps, will no longer dispute the conclusion, that it was not the real opinion of any Grecian sect of Philosophy.

I. PYTHAGORAS comes first under our inspection. He is said to have invented the name long after the existence of his profession; and was, as we may say, the middle link that joined together the lawgivers and philosophers; being indeed the only Greek, who was properly and truly both: though, from his time, and in conformity to his practice, not only those of his own school, but even those of the other three, dealt much in legislation: In which, his fortune was like that of Socrates, who was the first and last of the philosophers that confined himself to morals; though, in imitation of his conduct, morals, from thence, made the chief business of all the subdivisions of his school.

In the science of legislation, Orpheus?, for whom he had the highest reverence, was his master; and in philosophy, Pherecydes Syrus?.

After he had formed his character on two fo different models, he travelled into Egypt, the fountain-head of science; where, after a long and

9 *ld. ib.* c. 184.

P Jamblichus de Vita Pyth. c. 151.

painful initiation, he participated of all the mysteries of the priesthood.

He had now so thoroughly imbibed the spirit of legislation, that he not only pretended his LAWS were inspired, which most other law-givers had done; but his PHILOSOPHY likewise; which no other philosopher had the confidence to do.

This, we may be fure, would incline him to a more than ordinary cultivation of the DOUBLE DOC-TRINE. " He divided his disciples (fays Origen) " into two classes, the one he called the Esotte-" RIC, the other, the EXOTERIC. For to Those he " intrusted the more perfect and sublime doctrines; " to These, the more vulgar and popular ." And, indeed, he was so eminent in this practice, that the secret or esoteric doctrine of Pythagoras became proverbial. For what end he did it, Varro informs us, in St. Austin, where he fays, that " Pythagoras instructed his auditors in the science " of legislation last of all, when they were now become learned, wife, and happy." And on what subject, appears from a common faying of the fect, that "in those things which relate " to the Gods, ALL was not to be revealed to " ALL "

The communities he gave laws to, the cities he set free, are known to every one. And that nothing might be wanting to his *legislative character*, He, likewise, in conformity to general practice, instituted MYSTERIES; in which was taught, as usual, "the unity of the divine nature. So Jamblichus: "They say too he taught lustrations and

τ Jamblichus de Vita Pyth. c. ι. ο οδτω τθς μαθηλάς διείλε, κὰ τθς μὰν ΕΣΩΤΕΡΙΚΟΥΣ, τθς δὲ ΕΞΩΤΕΡΙΚΟΥΣ ἐκάλεσεν. Τοῖς μὰν γας τὰ τελεώτεςα μαθημαλα ἐπίσευε, τοῖς δὲ τὰ μεθριώτεςα. Fragm. de Philof. πεςὶ Πεθαγ.

" INITIATIONS, in which were delivered the MOST " EXACT KNOWLEDGE of the Gods. They fay " farther that he made a kind of union between " divine philosophy and religious worship; having " learnt fome things from the ORPHIC rites; fome, " from the ÆGYPTIAN PRIESTS; some, from "the Chaldeans and Magi; and fome from the " INITIATIONS celebrated in Eleusis, Imbros, " Samothrace and Delos; or wherever elfe, as " amongst the CELTS and Iberians"." Nay fo much did his legislative character prevail over his philosophic, that he brought not only the principles x of the mysteries into the schools, but likewise many of the observances; as abstinence from Beans and feveral kinds of animals: which afterwards contributed not a little to confound the fecret doctrines of the schools and the mysteries. This conformity was, without doubt, the reason why the Crotoniates, or the Metapontines (for in this authors differ y) turned his house or school, after his death, into a Temple of Ceres.

Thus the fame and authority of Pythagoras became unrivaled over all Greece and Italy. Herodotus calls him, the most authoritative of philosophers.

<sup>\* — &#</sup>x27;ΑΓγέλλειν βε αὐτῶν τεδ καθαρμείς, κὸ τὰς λεγομένας ΤΕ-ΛΕΤΑΣ, τὸν ΑΚΡΙΒΕΣΤΑΤΗΝ ΕΙΔΗΣΙΝ ΑΙΤΩΝ (τῶν θεῶν) έχοιθα, ἔτι θέ φασι κὸ σύθεξον αὐτὸν ποιδισαι τιν θειαν φιλοσοφιαν κὸ θειαπείαν' α΄ με μαθύλα πθος τῶν ΟΡΦΙΚΩΝ, α΄ δὲ παραὶ τῶν ΑΙΓΙΠΤΙΩΝ ΙΕΡΕΩΝ, α΄ δὲ παραὶ Χαλδαιαν κὸ Μάς ανι, α΄ δὲ παραὶ τῆς ΤΕΛΕΙΗΣ, τῆς ἐν ΕΛΕΥΣΙΝι γιιομένης, ἐν Ἰμεξαι τε, κὸ Σαμοθράκη, κὸ Δήλω, κὸ εἴ τι παραὶ τοῖς λοιποῖς, κὸ περὶ τες ΚΕΙΓΟΥΣ κὸ τὸν Ἰδηρίαν Τακολί. de Vit. Pyth. § 151.

<sup>\*</sup> See Book II. Sect. 4. p. 146, 147. \* Diog. Laeret. lib. viii. § 17. Porph. de Vit. Pyth. Nº 4.

<sup>&</sup>quot;--Ου τω αδικετάτω συψική Βυβαγόρη.--lib. iv. § 95. literally, not of the leaft authority: a common mode of expression in the ancient languages. So Homer, in the 15th Iliad, calls Achilles, επι αθασφικάθω 'Αχαίων, not the averyl foldier of the Græks; meaning, we know, the best.

Cicero

Cicero fay of him: Cum, Superbo regnante, in *Italiam* venisset, tenuit Magnam illam Græciam cum Honore ex disciplina, tum etiam auctoritate.

And this was no transient reputation: it defeeded to his followers, through a long fuccession; to whom the cities of Italy frequently com-

a Tusc. Disp. 1. i. c. 16.—Honore refers to his philosophic character; and auctoritate to his legislative. The common reading is, cum honore et disciplina, tum etiam auctoritate. Dr. B. in his emendations on the Tusc. Quast. saw this was faulty; but not reflecting on the complicated character of Pythagoras, and, perhaps not attending to Tully's purpose (which was, not to speak of the nature of his philosophy, but of the reputation he had in Magna Græcia) he feems not to have hit upon the true reading. He objects to Honore, because the particles cum and tum require a greater difference in the things spoken of, than is to be found in bonos and auctoritas: which reasoning would have been just, had only a philosophic character, or only a legislative, been the subject. But it was Tully's plain meaning, to present Pythagoras under both these views. So that horros, which is the proper consequence of succeeding in the first; and auctoritas, of succeeding in the latter; have all the real difference that cum and tum require; at least Plutarch thought fo, when he applied words of the very fame import to the Egyptian foldiery and the priesthood; to whom, like the legislator and philosopher, the one having power and the other Wifdom, auctoritas and honos diffinctly belong:--- TE μίν δι' ανθείαν, τε δε Δία σοφίαν, γρύες ΑΞΙΩΜΑ κ ΤΙΜΗΝ ະ້ຽວທີ De Isid. & Osr. Another objection, the learned critic brings against the common reading, has more weight; which is, that in honore et disciplina, two words are joined together as very fimilar in fense, which have scarce any affinity or relation to one another: on which account he would read More et disciplina. But this, as appears from what has been faid above, renders the whole fentence lame and imperfect: I would venture therefore to read, (only changing a fingle letter) tenuit Magnam illam Græciam cum honore Ex difciplina, tum etiam auctoritate: and then all will be right, disciplina referring equally to honore and auctoritate, as implying both his philosophic and civil institutions.

mitted the administration of their affairs<sup>b</sup>; where they so well established their authority, that St. Jerom tells us, very lasting marks of it were remaining to his time: Respice omnem oram Italiæ, quæ quondam Magna Græcia dicebatur; et Pythagorecrum dogmatum incisa publicis literis æra cognosces c.

But there are two circumstances, that must needs give us the highest idea of Pythagoras's fame in point of legislation.

1. The one is, that almost every lawgiver of eminence, for some time befored and after, as well as during his time, was numbered amongst his disciples: for the popular opinion was, that nothing could be done to purpose in the legislating way, that did not

come from Pythagoras.

2. The other is, that the doctrine of the difpensation of providence by a Metempsychosis, or transmigration of the soul, though taught in all the mysteries, and an inseparable part of a suture state in all the Religions of paganism, became, in common speech, the peculiar dostrine of Pythagoras.

And here the reader will pardon a short remark or two, not a little illustrating the point we

are upon.

There is not a more extraordinary book in all antiquity, than the Metamorphosis of Ovid; whether we regard the matter or the form. The fubject appears, prodigiously extravagant, and the composition irregular and absurd: had it been the product of a dark age, and a barbarous writer,

Πυθαγόρας δ' άχει πολλέ καλά την Ίταλίαν έτως ἐθαυμάζεο αὐτός τε ης οἱ συνόλες αὐτῷ ἐτάξοι, ὡς ε ης τὰς Φολθείας τοῖς ἀπ' κύτε ἐπίθες και πάς Φίλεις. Porph. de Vit. Pyth. N° 54.

Cont. Ruf. lib. ii.

See the discourse on Zaleucus's laws B. II. Sect. 3.

one might have been content to rank it in the class of our modern Oriental Tales, as a matter of no confequence. But when we confider it as written when Rome was in its meridian of knowledge and politeness: and by an author, whose acquaintance with the Greek tragic writers, had informed him of what belonged to a work or composition, we cannot but be shocked at so grotesque an affemblage of things: Unless we would rather distrust our modern judgment, and conclude the deformity to be only in appearance: And this, perhaps, we shall find to be the case: though it must be owned, the common opinion feems supported by Quintilian, the most judicious critic of antiquity, who thus speaks of our author and his work: Ut Ovidius LASCIVIRE in Metamorphosis folet, quem tamen excusare necessitas potest, RES DIVERSISSIMAS IN SPECIEM UNIUS CORPORIS COL-LIGENTEM e.

But to determine with certainty in this matter, we must consider the origin of the ancient fables in general.

There are two opinions concerning it.

I. The first is of those who think the fables contrived, by the ancient sages, for repositories of their mysterious wisdom: and, consequently, that they are no less than natural, moral, and divine truths, fantastically disguised. Greg. Naz. characterises these allegories well, where he calls them monstrous explanations, without principles; in which there is nothing stable, but a way of interpretation which, if indulged, would enable you to make any thing out of any things. But what

e Instit. Orat. lib. iv. c. 1. sub. fin,

f Εἶτ επινούδω τέτοις ἀλληγοτημαία μ τεςα εύμαλα, μ τῶν πεοα εμέων εκπίπων δ λόγ $\gg$  εἰς βάερθεα χωρείτω μ κεημιές δεωείας έκ είχεσης τὸ κάσιμον. Orat. iii.

must eternally discredit the pretense, that the first Mythologists, were allegorists, is, that if they indeed invented these fables to convey under them natural, moral, and divine truths, they must have been wife and virtuous men, lovers of mankind, and the friends of fociety. But how will this character agree to the abominable leudness, injustice, and impiety with which most of these popular fables abound, and which they could not but foresee would (as in fact they did) corrupt all the principles of moral practice. For both these reafons therefore we must conclude that a system which gives us nothing for the moral, but what, as Greg. Naz. observes, is uncertain, groundless and capricious; or for the fable, but what is abfurd and obscene g, must be an after invention employed to ferve a purpose. However, it was well for truth, that none of these ancient allegorists did better; that none of them entered upon their task with any thing like the spirit of our BACON, the creative power of whose genius so nearly realized these fancies, as fometimes to put us to a stand, whether we should not prefer the riches and beauty of his imagination, to the poor and meagre truth that lies at bottom.

II. The other opinion of the origin of the fables, is that which supposes them to be the corruptions of civil history; and consequently, as having their foundation in real facts; and this is unquestionably the truth. But this fystem did not find so able an expositor formerly in Palæphatus, as other more groundless conceit did of late in Bacon. It would lead me too far from my fub-

Ε - ύμῖν δὲ ἐτε τὸ νοθρίρον ἀξιύπις ον κ၌ τὸ Φροβεβλημένον ὁλέθριον.

h De sapientia veterum.

ject, to shew, in this place, which of the fables arose from the ambiguity of words, ill translated from some eastern language; which from proper names ill understood; which, from the bigh sigures of poetry, well invented to affect more barbarous minds; and which, from the polite contrivances of statesmen, to tame and soften savage manners: and how the universal passion of ADMIRATION procured an easy admittance into the mind, for all these various delusions.

But we must not omit, that the followers of this better opinion are divided into two factions; One of which would have the ancient sables the corruption of PROFANE history only; the Other, only of SACRED.

This Last seems unsupported by every thing but a zeal for doing honour to the Bible: For by what we can collect from Pagan, or even Jewish writers, the history of the Hebrews was less celebrated or known, than that of any other people whose memory antiquity hath brought down to us. But, known or unknown, it is fomewhat hard, methinks, that Greece must not be allowed the honour of producing one fingle hero; but all must be fetched from Palestine. One would have thought the very number of the gentile worthies, and the scarcity of the Jewish, might have induced our critics to employ some home-spun Pagans, for heroes of a second rate, at leaft. But this, it feems, would look too like a facrilegious compromife. So, an expedient is contrived to leffen that disparity in their number: and Moses alone is discovered to be Apollo, Pan, Priapus, Cecrops, Minos, Orpheus, Amphion, Tirefias, Janus, Evander, Romulus, and about some twenty more of the Pagan Gods and Heroes. So fays the learned and judicious Mr. K 3 Huet i:

Hueti: who, not content to seize, as lawful prize, all he meets within the waste of fabulous times, makes cruel inroads into the cultivated ages of history, and will fcarce allow Rome its own founderk.

Nay, so jealous are they of this fairy honour paid to scripture, that I have met with those who thought the bible much disparaged, to suppose any other origin of human facrifices than the command to Abraham, to offer up his fon. The contending for so extraordinary an honour is not unlike that of certain grammarians, who, out of due regard to the glory of former times, will not allow either the great or small-pow to be of modern growth, but vindicate those special bleffings to

this highly favoured antiquity.

The other party then, who esteem the fables. a corruption of Pagan history, appear in general to be right. But the misfortune is, the spirit of system feems to possess these likewise, while they allow nothing to Jewish history: For that reasoning, which makes them give the Egyptian and Phenician a share with the Grecian, should consequentially have disposed them to admit the Jewish into partnership; though it might perhaps contribute leaft to the common frock. And he that does not fee 1 that Philemon and Baucis is taken from the ftory of Lot, must be very blind: Though he "that

i Demonstratio Evangelica,

k Si fidem fequimur historiæ, fabulosa pleraque de eo [Ro-

mulo] narrari. Prop. iv. c. 9. § 8.

m See Lavaur, one of the best and latest supporters of this system, in his bistoire de la fable conferie avec l'histoire Sainte.-

La fable de Philemon et de Baucis - les personages sont inconnus, et j'en ai rien d'interessant à en dire : car de penser avec Mr. Huet, qu'elle nous cache l'histoire des Anges qui allerent vifiter Abraham, c'est une de ces imaginations hazardées dans lesquetles ce savant prelat, &c. Banier les Metam. d'Ovid. explic. des fables 7, 8, 9, & 10. lib. viii.

can discover the expedition of the Israelites from Egypt to Palestine, in the fable of the Argonauts, has

certainly the gift of fecond-fight.

Lastly, as it is the fault of these to allow nothing to Tewish history, so it is the fault of both to allow nothing to the fystem of the allegorists: for the' without all question the main body of the ancient fables is the corruption of civil history, yet it is as certain that some few, especially of the later of them were invented to convey, physical and moral truths.

Such was the original of the fables in general: But we must be a little more explicite concerning that species of them called the Метамогрно-SIS.

The metempsychosis was the method, the religious ancients employed to explain the ways of providence; which, as they were feen to be unequal here, were supposed to be set right hereafter. But this inequality was never thought fo great, as to leave no foot-steps of a superintendency: For the people of old argued thus: If there was no inequality, nothing would want to be set right; and if there was nothing but inequality, there would be no one to set it right. So that a regular providence, and none at all, equally destroyed their foundation of a future state.

It being then believed, that a providence was administred, though not with equal vigour, both here and hereafter; it was natural for them to suppose that the mode of it might be the same throughout. And as the way of punishing, in a different state,

Ainsi cette fable est toute compose des traditions que les Chananéens ou Pheniciens avoient repandues dans leurs voyages. On y voit des traits defigurez par ces traditions, mais CER-TAINMENT pris de l'histoire des Israëlites sous Moyse et sous Josué. Cap. Jason et les Argonauts-à la fin.

was by a transmigration of the soul; so in this, it was by a transformation of the body: The thing being the same, with only a little difference of ceremony in the transaction: the foul in the first case going to the body; and, in the latter, the body to the foul: This being called the metamorphofis; and that the metempsychosis. Thus, each made a part of the popular notion of providence. And it is remarkable, that wherever the doctrine of transmigration was received, either in ancient or modern times, there the belief of transformation hath prevailed likewise. It is true, that in support of the first part of this superstition, Reason only suffer'd; in Support of the latter, the Senses too were violated. But minds grossly passioned never want attested facts to support their extravagancies. What principally contributed to fix their belief of the metamorphesis was, in my opinion, the strong and difordered imagination of a melancholy habit; more than any other producing religious fear, and most affected by it when produced. There was a common diftemper, arising from this babit, well known to the Greek physicians by the name of the lycanthropy; where the patient fancied himself turned into a wolf, or other favage animal. Why the difordered imagination should take this ply, is not hard to conceive, if we reflect that the metempsychosis made part of the popular doctrine of providence; and that a metamorphofis was, as we have faid, the fame mode of punishment, differing only in time and ceremony. For the religious belief, we may be affured, would work strongly on a diseased fancy, racked by a consciousness of crimes, to which

n The modern eastern tales are full of metamorphoses; and it is to be noted that those people, before they embraced mahometanism, were pagans and believers of the metempsychosis.

that *babit* is naturally obnoxious; and, as it did in the case of Nebuchadnezzar, make the patient conclude himself the object of divine justice. And that the vulgar superstition generally gives the bias to the carreer of a distempered mind, we have a familiar instance. No people upon earth are more subject to *atrabilaire* disorders than the English: Now while the tales of magicians, and their transformations were believed, nothing was more symptomatic in this distemper, than such fancied changes by the power of witchcraft. But since these sables lost their terror, very different whimsies, we find, have possessed our melancholic people.

There fickly imaginations therefore, proceeding from the impressions of the religious notion of the metamorphofis, would in their turn add great credit to it; and then any trifle would keep it up; even an equivocal appellation; which, I don't doubt, hath given birth to many a fable; though to many more, it hath ferved only for an afterembellishment. But it is remarkable, that fabulous antiquity itself assists us to detect its own impostures. For altho', it generally represents the punishments for impiety, as actual transformations; yet, in the famous story of the daughters of Proetus, it has honeftly told us the case that it was no more than a deep melancholy, inflicted by Juno, which made them fancy themselves turned into heifers; fo the poet.

" Prætides implerunt falsis mugitilms agros,

Onniel's prediction of this monarch's difference, evidently shews it to have been the effect of divine vengeance; yet the account of the circumstances of his punishment, scenis to show, that it was inflicted by common and natural means.

and of this, Melampus cured them by a course of

physic P.

Thus the metamorphofis arose from the doctrine of the metempsychosis; and was, indeed, a mode of it; and, of course, a very considerable part of the Pagan theology 9: So that we are not to wonder if several grave writers made collections of them; as Nicander, Boeus, Callisthenes, Dorotheus, Theodorus, Parthenius, and Adrian the sophist. Of what kind these collections were, we may see by that of Antonius Liberalis, who transcribed from them: Thence too Ovid gathered his materials; and formed them into a poem on the most fublime and regular plan, A POPULAR HISTORY OF PROVIDENCE; carried down in as methodical a manner as the graces of poetry would allow, from the creation to his own times, through the Egyp-TIAN, PHENICIAN, GREEK, and ROMAN histories: And this the elegant Paterculus feems to intimate, in the character he gives of the poet and his work r.

It plainly appears to have been in general credit by it's making the foundation of the following epigram, one of the

finest in antiquity.

Έπ ζωής με θεοί τευξαν λίθον° ἐπ δε λίθοιο Ζωήν Πραξιτέλης ἔμπαλιν ἐιργάσατο.

F Prætides, Præti, et Stenobææ, five Antiopæ fecundum Homerum, filiæ fuerunt, Lysippe, Ipponoe, Cyrianassa. Hæ se cum prætulissent Junoni in pulchritudine; vel, ut quidam volunt, cum essent antisties, ausæ sunt vesti ejus aurum detræsum in usum sum sum convertere: illa irata hunc surorem earum immist mentibus; ut putantes se vaccas in saltus abirent, et plerumque mugirent, et timerent aratra; quas Melampus, Amythaonis filius, pasta mercede ut Cyrianassam uxorem cum parte regni acciperet, placata Junone, insecto sonte, ubi solitæ erant bibere, purgavit et in pristinum sensum reduxit. Servius in Bucol. Virgilii vi. y 48.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Naso persectissimi in forma operis sui. Hist. Rom. 1. ii. c. 36.

« Aut

Now the proper introduction, as well as foundation and support, of this kind of history is a THE-ISTICAL COSMOGENY. Accordingly, we find our poet introduceth it with fuch a one. And this likewife in imitation of his Grecian Originals. Theopompus, by the account Servius gives of him, feems to have composed such a History, so prefaced; but on a more ingenious plan. He feigns that some of Midas's shepherds took the God Silenus asleep, after a debauch; and brought him bound to their mafter. When he came into the Prefence, his chains fell from him of their own accord; and he answered to what was required of him, concerning NATURE and ANTIQUITY's. From hence, (as Servius remarks) Virgil took the hint of his SILENUS: the subject of whose song, in that ecloque, is so exact an epitome of the contents of the METAMORPHOSIS, that it is worth considering.

- " Namque canebat uti magnum per inane coacta " Semina &c.
- --- "et ipse tener mundi concreverit orbis.-" Hinc lapides Pyrrhæ jactos, Saturnia regna,
- "Caucasiasque refert volucres, surtumque Pro-" methei—
- "Tum Phaëtontiadas musco circumdat amaræ
- " Corticis -
- " Quid loquar aut Scyllam Nisi, quam sama se-" cuta est,
- " Candida fuccinctam latrantibus inguina mon-" ftris,
- "Dulichias vexasse rates -

s Sane hoc de Sileno non dicitur fictum a Virgilio, sed a Theopompo translatum. Is enim apprehensum Silenum a Midæ regis pastoribus, dicit crapula madentem, et ex ea soporatum ; illos dolo adgreffos dormientem vinxiffe; postea vinculis sponte labentibus liberatum de rebus naturalieus et antiquis Midæ interroganti respondisse. Serv. ad Echg. vi. 1/13. Vol. II.

"Aut ut mutatos Terei narraverit artus: &c.

Here we have the formation of the world, the golden age, and the original and renovation of man; together with those ancient fables which taught the government of the Gods, and their punishment of impiety, by the change of human, into brutal and vegetable forms. It is evident from hence, that both the latin poets drew from one source; and particularly from Theopompus: whom Virgil hath epitomised; and Ovid paraphrased. And if the Latter neglected to borrow a great beauty from him, to adorn his own poem; the Other, (which is much more furprifing) by deviating from his original, in one material circumstance, hath committed a very gross blunder. Ovid in not laying the fcene of his History in the adventure of Midas's shepherds; and so making SILENUS the Narrator throughout, hath let flip the advantage of giving his facred History the fanction of a divine Speaker, and, by that means, of tying the whole composition together in the most natural and artful manner. But then VIRGIL, either in fondness to the philosophy of Epicurus, or in compliment to Varus, who was of that School, instead of making his Cosmogeny theistical, (as without doubt Theopompus did, and, we see, Ovid hath done) from whence the popular history of Providence naturally followed, hath made it the product of BLIND ATOMS;

reper inane coacta

from whence nothing naturally follows, but Fate or Fortune. And yet he talks like a Theift, (indeed, because he talks after Theists) of the renovation of Man, the golden Age, and the punishment of Prometheus. Servius seems to have had some obscure glimpse of this absurdity, as appears from his embarras

barras to account for the CONNECTION between the Epicurean origine of the world, and the religious fables which follow. In his note on the words binc lapides Pyrrhæ jaēlos, he fays,—" quæstio est hoc 'loco: nam, relictis prudentibus rebus de mundi 'origine, subito ad fabulas transitum secit. Sed di-cimus, aut exprimere cum voluisse sectam Epicuream, quæ rebus seriis semper inserit voluptates: aut sabulis plenis admirationis puerorum corda 'mulceri."—However in other respects the eclogue is full of beauties.

But to return to Ovid. Although to adorn and enliven his poem, he hath followed the bent of his difposition, in filling it with the love-stories of the Gods, which, too, their traditions had made facred; yet he always keeps his end in view, by taking frequent occasion to remind his reader, that those punishments were inslicted by the Gods for impiety. This appears to have been the usual strain of the writers of METAMORPHOSES. As long as they preferved their piety to the Gods, they were happy, being the constant prologue to a tragic story. So that, what Palæphatus says of the mythologic poets in general may with a peculiar justness be applied to Ovid: The poets (says he) contrived fables of this kind to impress on their bearers a reverence for the Gods.

But this was not all. Ovid jealous, as it were, of the fecret dignity of his Work, hath taken care, towards the conclusion, to give the intelligent reader the master-key to his meaning. We have observed, that though the *metempsychosis* was universally taught and believed long before the time of Pythagoras; yet the greatness of his reputation,

t "Αχς, μλρ εν θευς ετίμων, Εθαίμονες πσαν. Ant. Liberalis Met. ε. xi.

 $<sup>^{</sup>v}$  Τοὺς δὲ μύθους τούτους συνέθεσαν οἱ ποιηταὶ, ἴνα οἱ ἀκροώμενος μὴ ὑ $^{c}$ ξες ζωσιν εἰς τὸ Sεῖον. De incred. Hift. c. 3.

and another cause, we shall come to presently, made it afterwards to be reckoned amongst his peculiar doctrines. Now Ovid, by a contrivance, which for its justness and beauty may be compared with any thing in antiquity, seizes this circumstance to instruct his reader in these two important points: 1. That his poem is a popular history of Providence: And 2. That the Metempsychosis was the original of the Metamorphosis. For in the conclusion of his book, he introduceth Pythagoras, teaching and explaining the transmigration of things to the people of Crotona. This was ending his Work in that just philosophic manner, which the elegance of pure and ancient wit

required.

The Abbé Banier not entering into this beautiful contrivance, is at a loss x to account for Ovid's bringing in Pythagoras fo much out of course. The best reason he can assign, is that the poet having finished the bistorical metamorphosis, goes on to the natural; which Pythagoras is made to deliver to the Crotoniates. But this is not fact, but hypothesis: The poet had not finished the bistorical metamorphofis: For having gone through the epifode of the natural change of things, he re-assumes the proper subject of his work, the bistorical, or moral, metamorphofis, through the remaining part of the last book; which ends with the change of Cæfar into a comet. Had not Ovid, therefore introduced Pythagoras for the purpose here affigned, we should hardly have found him in this place; but in the Greek division, to which he properly belonged. Where the famous circumstance of his golden thigh, and the exhibition of it at the olympic games, would have afforded the noblest and most entertaining adventure in the whole poem.

What hath been faid, I suppose, will tend to give us a different and higher notion of this extraordinary work; and lessen our surprize at the author's presumption, in so considently predicting immortality to his performance.

" Jamque opus exegi, quod nec Jovis ira, nec ignis, " Nec poterit ferrum, nec edax abolere vetustas.

To proceed with our fubject. From what hath been faid of Pythagoras's character, it appears, that he taught feveral doctrines which he did not believe; and cultivated opinions merely on account of their utility. And we have the express testimony of Timæus Locrus, that, in the number of these latter, was the popular doctrine of the metempsychosis. This very ancient Pythagorean, after having faidy, that propagating the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments, was neceffary to fociety, goes on in this manner: " For " as we fometimes cure the body with unwhole-" fome remedies, when fuch as are most whole-" fome have no effect; fo we restrain those " minds by false relations, which will not be per-" fuaded by the truth: There is a necessity there-" fore of inftilling the dread of those FOREIGN "TORMENTS. As that the foul shifts and chan-" ges its habitation; that the coward is ignomi-" niously thrust into the body of a woman; the " murderer imprisoned within the furr of a sa-" vage; the lascivious condemned to invigorate a " boar or fow; the vain and inconstant changed " into birds; and the flothful and ignorant into "fishes. The dispensation of all these things is " committed in the fecond period, to Nemesis the " avenger; together with the infernal furies, her

y See the first fection of this book.

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affesfors, the inspectors of human actions; to whom God, the sovereign Lord of all things.

" hath committed the government of the world,

replenished with Gods and Men, and other ani-

" mals; all which were formed after the perfect

" model of the eternal and intellectual ideas"."

Timæus's testimony is precise; and, as this notion of the *metempsychosis* was an inseparable part of the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments, if the Pythagoreans disbelieved the *one*, they must necessarily reject the *other*.

But, here it may be proper to explain, and inforce a distinction, which by being totally overlooked,

hath much embaraffed the whole matter.

The doctrine of the metempsychosis, as it signified a moral designation of providence, came originally from Egypt, and was, as we have said, believed by all mankind. But Pythagoras, who had it, with the rest of the world, from thence, gave it a new modification, and taught, "that the fuccessive transition of the soul into other bodies, was physical, necessary, and exclusive of all moral considerations whatever." This is what Diogenes Laertius means, when he tells us "That Pythagoras was reported to be the first who taught the migration of the soul, from one

τος γάρ τὰ σώμαλα νοσύθετι πόπα ύγιάζομες, εἴκα μη εἰκη τοῖς ε΄γιενολάτοις. Ε΄τα τὰς ὑυχὰς ἀπείργομες ὑψιὰτοις κίγοις, εἴκα μὰ ἀγήμι αλαθέσι. λέγοιδο δ' αἰαλαμός κὰ ΤΙΜΩ ΡΙΑΙ ΞΕΝΑΙ, ῶς μεῖειδυομέναν τὰν ὑυχὰς, τῶν μὰν δειλῶι, ἐς γιμιαινέα σκάνεα, ποθ ε΄ξειν ἐκδιδόμενα τὰν ὑυχὰ, τῶν μὰν δειλῶι, ἐς γιμιαινέα σκάνεα, ποθ ε΄ξειν ἐκδιδόμενα τῶν ὑυχὰ, τῶν μὰν δειλῶι, ἐς γιμιαινέα σκάνεα, ποθ εξειν ἐκδιδόμενα τῶν θε μιαιφότων, ἐς θητίων σώμαλα, ποθὶ κόλασιν λαινον δ' ἐς συῶν ἡ κάπεων μοςφάς κέψων δὲ κὰ μεῖεωρω, ἐς τῶν τῶν ἀξεροπόρω. ἀξερῶν ὁὲ κὰ ἀπεακίων, ἀμαθέν τε κὰ ἀνοπτων, ἐς τῶν τῶν ἐκυδρῶν ὁἐκὰ ἀπεακίων, ἀμαθέν τε κὰ ἀνοπτων, ἐς τῶν τῶν ἐκυδρῶν ὁἐκὰ. ἀπεακίων ἀπεκοτίς συνδικείνει, σω δαίμοσι παλαμαίοις χθυνίοις τε, τοῖς ἐπόπλαι, τῶν ἀνομοπίων ὁῖς ὁ πανίων αλγεμών ξεὸς ἐπέπεεψε διοίκησιν κόσμω. συμπιπλιεωμειω ἐκ διαν τε κὰ ἀλξώπων. τῶν τε ἀλλων ζώων ὁσα δεθανιθείν, αι ποτ΄ εἰκονα των ἀξιςων ἐλθο ἀιανίω κὰ νοηὶῶ. Dε Αμίπα Λιμπά, fub fin.

c body to another, by a physical necessity a." The doctrine was, indeed, peculiarly bis, and in the number of the efoteries, delivered in his school, to be believed b; and perhaps, was what contributed more than any thing besides, to make the popular notion of the metempsychosis, in the sense of a moral designation, to be esteemed I sis; though it was indeed common to all; and delivered by him, as appears from Timeus, amongst the exoteric doctrines, whose end was utility, and not truth.

How destructive this proper pythagoric notion of the metempsychosis was to the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments, Ovid, who well understood the secret of the distinction, evidently perceived, where he makes Pythagoras, in delivering the esoteric doctrine of his school to the Crotoniates, reject a suture state of rewards and punishments, on the very principle of his own metempsychosis, tho' the general metempsychosis was an inseparable and essential part of that state:

O genus attonitum gelidæ formidine mortis, Quid Styga, quid tenebras, etnomina vanatimetis, Materiem vatum, falfique piacula mundi? Corpora, five rogus fiammâ, feu tabe vetustas Abstulerit, mala posse pati non ulla putetis. Morte carent animæ: semperque priore relictâ Sede, novisdomibus habitant vivuntque receptæ.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Περώτου δε φαρὶ τοῦτου ἀποφήναι τὸυ ψυχὸυ ΚΥΚΛΟΝ ΑΝΑΓΚΗΣ ΑΜΕΙΒΟΥΣΑΝ, ὅλλοῖε ἀλλοις ἐνδεῦσθαι ζώοις. L. viii. § 14.

b Seneca speaking of the proper pythagoric doctrine of the metempsychosis makes it as physically necessary as the revolution of the heavenly bodies. Non credis animas in alia corpora atque alia describi? et migrationem esse quam dicimus esse mortem? Non credis in his pecudibus ferisve aut aqua mersis illum quondam hominis animum morari? Non credis nihil perire in hoc mundo, sed mutare regionem? Nec tantum coelessia per certos circuitus verti, sed animalia quoque per vices ire, et animos per orbem agi. Ep. 109.

CL. xv. Vol. II.

The not attending to this distinction hath much perplexed even the best modern writers on the subject of Pythagoras. Mr. Dacier, in his life of that philosopher, when he comes to speak of the doctrine of the metempsychosis, advances crudely, that all antiquity have been deceived in thinking Pythagoras really believed it. And, for his warrant, quotes the passage from Timeus, given above. Mr. Le Clerc d, scandalized at this assertion, assirms as crudely, that he did believe it; and endeavours to prove his point by divers arguments, and paffages of ancient writers. In which dispute, neither of them being aware of the two different kinds of Metempsychosis, each of them have with much confusion, taken of the true and false in this question, and divided it between them. Dacier was furely in the right, in supposing Pythagoras did not believe the Metempsychosis, as delivered by his disciple Timens; but as furely in the wrong to conclude from thence, that he believed none at all. And Le Clere was not mistaken in thinking the philosopher did believe fome fort of Metempsychosis; but apparently in an error in supposing that it was the popular and moral notion of it. In a word, the proofs which Dacier brings, conclude only against Pythagoras's believing a meral transmigration; and those, Le Clerc opposes, conclude only for his believing a netural one. While neither, as we fay, apprehending there were two kinds, the one common to all, the other peculiar to that philosopher, they have both fallen into great mistakes.

Let me give an inftance from Le Clerc; as it will contribute in general to illustrate the subject, and, at the same time, throw light on the latter part of the passage, we have but now quoted from

d Bibl. Choise, tom. x. Art. ii. Sect 5.

Timœus. Dacier had urged thatpaffage to prove, Pythagoras did not believe the Metempsychosis; and Le Clerc had urged it, to prove he did; because the author in conclusion expressy affirms, that the dispensation of the Metempsychosis is committed in the second period to Nemesis the avenger. "A πανία ή ταῦτα όν δωθέρα σειόδω ά Νεμεσις ΣΥΝΔΙΕΚΡΙΝΕ. Le Clerc fays, I have translated these words verbatim, that the reader may see he talks seriously e. But whoever reads the whole pastage, which expresly speaks of the doctrine as useful and not as true, will be forced to own, that by the phrase, Nemesis decrees, is meant, it must be taught that Nemesis decrees. But this circumstance of Nemelis is remarkable; and enough to put the matter out of question. There were two kinds, as we have faid, of the Metempsyckesse, which the Pythagoreans taught; the moral and the natural. The latter they believed, the first they only preached. So that Timmus speaking here of the Metempsychosis as a fable, useful for the people to credit; lest the reader should mistake him as meaning the natural, he adds the circumstance of Nemesis, the poetical Avenger of the crimes of men, to confine all he had faid, to the moral Metempsychofis.

To support what is here observed, it may not be improper to infert the fentiments of some of the most considerable of Pythagoras's disciples on this point: which I shall transcribe from my very learned Friend, the author of the critical inquiry into the opinions and practices of the ancient philosophers: where the reader may see them admirably well explained and defended from a deal of idle chicane.

e J'ai traduit ces dernieres paroles de Timée mot pour mot, àfin que l'on pût voir, qu'il parle serieusement. Biel. Cheisie, tom. x. p. 193. L 2

'Plutarch tells us "that Empedocles held death to be a feparation of the fiery substance from the "other parts, and therefore supposed that death

"was common to the foul and body f."

Sextus Empiricus fays, " it is evident that Epi-" curus ftole his principles from the poets. As to

"that famous tenet of his that death is nothing to us,

"he borrowed it from Epicharmus, who fays, I neither look upon the act of dying, or the state

" that succeeds it, as of any consequence and importance

" to meg."

Plutarch likewise in his confolation to Apollonius, cites the following words of Epicharmus. "The "parts of which you are composed will be separated at death; and each will return to the place from which it originally came. The earth will be restored to earth, and the spirit will ascend upwards; what is there terrible or grievous in "this.""

As for this afcent of the spirit upwards, Lucretius will explain it.

Cedit enim retro, de terra quod fuit ante, In terras: et quod missum est ex atheris oris, Id rursum coeli rellatum templa receptant.

Lib. ii.

F Εμπιδοκλής του θώνατοι γεξειήσθαι 2/4χωρισμόι τε αυχώθες, εξ δι ή σύγκεισις τῷ ἀιθεώτω συνες αθη ώς ε κατά 19το κομού είναι τὸν θάνατοι σώματος κὰ ψυχής. De Plac. c. 25. Cicero fays, Empedocles animum effe cenfet cordi fuffufum fanguinem. 1 Tufc. 9. alluding to Empedocles's own words in that famous verse: Αξιμα γὰο ἀιθεώποις αθεκάζδιον ἐςι νόκμα.

8 δ δὶ Επίκυρος Φωςᾶται τὰ κράτικα τῶν διγμάτων ౚ-૭ὰ τοιντῶς ἀνηκπακὸ;—τὸν δὰ ἐάνατον ὅτι θόξε ἐκι πρὸς ήμᾶς, Επίχαρμ® ἀυτῷ πιροσμεμόνυκεν, εἰπὰν ἀποθπιεῖν ἢ τεθ.άναι ἐ μοὶ διαθιερί. ad Gram.

\$ 273. Γ. Καλώς εξι ό Επίχαιμος συναχίδη, Φησί, διαχίθη η απόλθες δής Πλόρ παλώς γα μία εξι γαι, πρόμα ο άνοι σε παθός χαλεποις ψόρ έν. Teles, another follower of Pythagoras, thus addresses himself to one grieved and afflicted for the loss of a deceased friend; "You complain (says he) that "your friend will never exist more; but remember, "that he had no existence ten thousand years ago, "that he did not live in the time of the Trojan "war, nor even in much later periods. This, it seems, does not move you: all your concern is, because he will not exist for the future!." Epicurus uses the very same language on the same occasion:

Refpice item quam nil ad nos ante acta vetustas Temporis æterni fuerit, quam nascimur ante. Hoc igitur nobis speculum natura futuri Temporis exponit, post mortem denique nostram.

Lucr. l. iii.'
So far, my learned friend.

II. Plato is next in order: he likewise greatly affected the character of Lawgiver; and actually composed laws for several people, as the Syracusians and Cretans; but with what kind of spirit we may judge, by his refusing that employment for the Thebans and Arcadians, as soon as he understood they were averse to equality of possessions. The truth is, his philosophic character, which was always predominant, as in Pythagoras the legislative, gave his politics a cast of refinement which made his schemes of government very impracticable, and even unnatural. So that, tho' his knowledge of mankind was indeed great and profound, and therefore highly commended by Cicero 1, yet his sine-drawn

Deus ille noster Plato in wohrteig. See B. ii. § 3.

speculations brought him at length into such contempt as a writer of politics, that Josephus tells us, notwithstanding be was so high in glory and admiration among st the Greeks, above the rest of the philosophers, for his superior virtue, and power of eloquence, yet be was openy laughed at, and bitterly ridiculed by those who pretended to any profound high knowledge of politics m.

The only Greek mafters he followed, were Pythagoras and Socrates: These he much admired. From the first, he took his fondness for geometry, his fanaticism of numbers, his ambition for lawgiving, and the doctrine of the Metempsyckesis: From the latter, the study of morals, and the mode

of disputing.

This was a monftrous mif-alliance": I mean, the incorporating into one philosophy, the discordant genius of those two schools: the first of which dogmatized in the most sublime questions of nature; the other gave up the most vulgar, as inscrutable. The Samian lawgiver aimed only at utility, and the moral Athenian laboured after truth.

We need not therefore, any longer wonder at the obscurity which Plato's frequent contradictions

m Πλάτων 3 θαυμαζίμει & σθος τοῦς Ιλλησει, ως κη σεμνότη ι βίο διειεγκών ης δυταμα λίγων, ης στειδος σάνθας έπεραζας τες δι Φιλοσοφία γεδοιότας, έπο των φασνόνταν δενών είκαι τα πολιθικά, μικέν δείν χλευαζόμεν@, κ καμωθεμενΟ- 2]ατελεί. Cont. Ap. 1. ii. § 31.

<sup>&</sup>quot; Geddes, or his Glascow editors, (to mention them for once) in the essay on the composition of the ancients, are here very angry at the author for charging Plato with making a menfirous milalliance, merely (as they fay) because he added the study of thysics to that of morals; and employ six pages in defending Plato's conduct. As they could not fee then, to peffibly they will not now, that the term the author gave to Flato's incorporating the Pythagoric and Socratic schools, referred not to the different subjests of their inquiries; but to their different genius of philosophifing.

throw over his writings. It was caused not only by the double doctrine, a thing common to all the philosophers; but likewise by the joint profession of two so contrary philosophies. This effect could not escape the observation of Eusebius: Hear then (says he) the Greeks themselves, by their best and most powerful speaker, now rejecting, and now egain

adopting the FABLES ".

However it was the abstruse philosophy of Pythagoras with which he was most taken. For the take of this, he assumed also the legislative part; and in imitation of his master, travelled into Egypt; where he was initiated into the Mysteries of the priesthood. It was this made Xenophon, the faithful follower of Secrates, say, that riate had adulterated the pure and simple philosophy of their master; and was in Love with a gypt, and the portentous wisdom of Pythagoras? And the portentous wisdom of Pythagoras? And the occasioned Socrates himself to exclaim, Te Gaus, what a heap of tyes has this young man placed to my account?

But of all the Egyptian inventions, and Pythageric practices, nothing pleafed him more than that of the double destrine, and the division of his auditors into the exoteric and loterial all a file more professedly than any contract above of these principles, on which that distributed was founded; such as,—That it is for the best of mankind, that they should be often deceived—Thus bere are some truths not sit for the people to know—That the world is not to be entrusted with the true notion of God;

O "Are: δ' ε̄ν αυτῶν Ἑλλήων δι' ἐνὸς τὰ πάθων ἀρίτε, τοτὲ μὲν ἐξρόθητῶν, τόὶ δ' ε̄ν κυάλων εἰσποιενένε τὰς μυθες. Prop. Evang. p. 47. Steph. Ed. See what has been further faid on this matter p. 122. Note ('.)

Ρ Αιγυπία ής αιτη, η της Πυθαγος α τεραλώδες σοφίας.

<sup>4—</sup>Φαρί δε κή Σωκουτην ακθσανία τον Αυσιν αναγινώσκο τος Πλάτανθη, Ήρακλεις, είπεϊν, ώς συλλά μου καθεψούδο δ κανίσκος. Diog. Laert. 1. iii. § 55.

and more openly philosophising upon that distinction in his writings. Thus, in his books of Laws, (which we shall see presently were of the exoteric kind) he defends the popular opinion, which held the fun, moon, ftars, and earth, to be Gods, against the theory of Anaxagoras, which taught the fun was a mass of fire, the moon an habitable earth, &c. Here, his objection to the NEW PHILOSOPHY, (as he calls it) is, that it was an inlet to atheifm; for the common people, when they once found those to be no Gods, which they had received for fuch, would be apt to conclude, there were none at all: But in his Cratylus, which was of the efotoric kind, he laughs at the ancients for worshiping the fun and stars, as Gods.

In a word, the ancients thought this diffinction of the double doffrine, so necessary a key to Plato's writings, that they composed discourses on it. Numenius, a pythagorean and platonist both in one, wrote a treatife (now lost) of the secret dostrines (that is, the real opinions) of Plator, which would probably have given much light to this question, had the question wanted it. But Albinus an old platonist, hath, in some measure, supplied this loss, by his introduction to the dialogues of Plato's. From which it appears, that those very books. where Piato details out the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments, are all of the exoteric kind. To this, it hath been faid, that some of these were of the political and civil kind: and so fay I; but nevertheless of the exoteric, called political, from their subject, and exoterical from their manner of handling it. But if the nature of the

2 Apud Febrie Bibl. Grac. 1. iii. c. 2.

r Πες το Τιλάτων της ήτων. Teste Euseb. 1, xiii, c. 4, 5. Prap. Evang.

fubject will not teach them that it must needs be handled exoterically, Jamblichus's authority must decide the question; who in his life of Pythagoras thath used political in the sense of esoterical: And in that class, Albinus ranks the Criton, Phædo, Minos, Symposium, Laws, Epistles, Epinomis, Menexenus, Clitophon, and Philebus.

There is an odd passage in Cicero w, which seems to regard the Phædo in the light of a mere exoteric composition, so far as it concerns the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments. The auditor is advised to read the Phædo, to confirm his belief in this point; to which he replies, Feci mehercule, & quidem sapius: sed NESCIO QUOMODO, dum lego affentior: cum posui librum, & mecum ipse de immortalitate animorum capi cogitare, assensio omnis illa elabitur. The only reasonable account I can give of this reflection, for the supposing it an imitation of fomething like it in the Phædo itself, applied to a very different purpose, gives, in my opinion none at all; I fay the only reasonable account is, that the Phædo being an exoteric dialogue, and written for the people, was, amongst the learned, in the rank of a philosophical romance: but while one of these readers is very intent on such a work, a masterpiece-piece like this for composition and eloquence, he becomes fo captivated with the charms and flattery of these ornaments, that he forgets, for a moment, the hidden purpose, and falls into the vulgar deceit. But having thrown the book aside, grown cool, and reslected on those principles concerning God and the foul, held in common by the philosophers (of which more hereafter) all the bright colouring disappears, the real face obtrudes itself, and the gaudy vision shrinks

<sup>\*</sup> Sect. 150. \* Sect. 5. \* Tule. Dif. 1. i. c. 5.

from his embrace. A parallel passage in Seneca's epistles, will explain, and seems to support, this interpretation. Quemedo molestus est jucundum som-NIUM VIDENTI, qui excitat; aufert enim voluptatem, etiamsi falsam, effectum tamen vera habentem; sic epistola tua mihi fecit injuriam; revocavit enim me cogitationi aptæ traditum, & iturum, si licuisset, ulte-Juvabat de æternitate animarum quærere, imo mebercule credere. Credebam enim facile opinionibus magnorum virorum, rem gratissimam promittentium magis quam probantium! Debam me spei tenta. Jam eram fastidio miki, jam reliquias ætatis infractæ contemnebam, in immerfun illud tempus & in possessionem omnis ævi transarurus: cum subito experrectus sum, epistela tua accepta, & tam Bellum somnium perdidix.

The Platonic philosophy being then entirely Pythagorean in the point in question, and this latter rejecting the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments, we might fairly conclude them both under the same predicament.

But as Plato is effected the peculiar patron of this doctrine; chiefly, I fuppole, on his being the first who brought REASONS for the ETERNITY of the foul's: on this account, it will be proper to be a little

more particular.

1. First then, it is very true, that Plato has argued much for the *eternity*, or, if you will, for the *immortality* of the foul. But to know what fort of immortality he meant, we need only consider what fort of arguments he employs. Now these, which he was so famous for inventing and inforcing, were *natural* and *metaphysical*, fetched from the establishment.

x Epist. 102.

y Tuscul. Dist. 1. i. c. 17. Primum de animorum æternitate non solum sensisse idem quod Pythagoras, sed rationem etiam attulisse.

fence and qualities of the foul; which therefore concluded only for its permanency: and this he certainly believed \*. But for any moral arguments, from which only a future flate of rewards and punishments can be deduced, he refolves them all into tradition, and the religion of his country.

2. As the inventing realons for the immortality of the foul, was one cause of his being held the great patron of this doctrine; so another was his tamous refinement (for it was indeed bis) of the natural Metempsychosis, the peculiar notion of the Pythagoreans. This natural Metemplychofis was, as we have faid, that the successive transition of the foul into other bodies was physical and necessary, and exclusive of all moral designation what soever. Plato, on receiving this opinion from his mafter, gave it this additional improvement; that those changes and transitions were the purgations of impure minds, unfit, by reason of the pollutions they had contracted, to reascend the place from whence they came, and rejoin that substance from whence they were discerped; and consequently, that pure immaculate sculs were exempt from this transmigration. Thus Plato's Metempsychofis (which was as peculiarly his, as the other was Pythagoras's) feemed to have fornething of a moral defignation in it, which his mafter's had not; nor did it, like that, necessarily subject all to it, without diffinction, or for the fame length of time. In this then they differed': But how much they agreed in excluding the notion of all future state of reward and punishment, will be feen, when in the next

<sup>7</sup> Tot rationes attulit [Plato] ut velle ceteris, fibi certè perfuafiffe videatur. Civ. Tufe. Diff. 1. i. c. 21. Καθάπες δ νέμως δ σατοιων λίγει, as he expresses it in his twelfth book of laws.

We have now explained the three forts of Metempsychosis; The popular; That which was peculiar to Pythagoras; and lastly That peculiar to Plato. The not distinguishing the Platonic

fection we come to shew what a kind of existence it was, which Pythagoras and Plato afforded to the foul, when it had rejoined that universal substance,

from which it had been difcerped.

3. However it is very true, that in his writings he inculcates the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments: but this, always in the gross sense of the populace: that the fouls of ill men descended into asses and swine; — that the uninitiated lay in mire and filth; -that there were three judges of hell; and talks much of Styx, Cocytus, Acheron, &c. and all fo feriously b, as shews he had a mind to be believed. But did he indeed believe these fables? we may be affured he did not: for being the most spiritualized of the philosophers, had he really credited a future state of rewards and punishments, he would have refined and purified it, as he did the doctrine of the eternity of the foul, which he certainly believed. But he has as good as told us what he really thought of it, in his Epinomis; where, writing of the condition of a good and wife man after death, he fays, of whom, both in jest and in earnest, I constantly affirm, that when such a one shall have finished his destined course by death, he shall at his dissolution, be stript of those many senses which

from the Pythagoric; and both, from the popular, have occasioned even the Ancients to write with much obscurity on this matter. What can be more inexplicable and contradictory than the account Servius hath given of it? "Sciendum, non omnes ani-" mas ad corpora reverti. Aliquæ enim propter vitæ merita " non redeunt propter malam vitam; aliquæ propter fati ne-"cessitatem." In En. vi. y 713. Here he has jumbled into one, as the current doctrine of the Metempsychosis, these three different and distinct forts: alique propter vite MERITA non redeunt, belonging to the popular notion; aliquæ redeunt propter fati necessitatem, belonging to Pythagoras's; and aliqua propter MALAM vitam to Plato's.

b In his Gorgias, Phædo, and Republic.

be here enjoyed; and then only participate of one simple lot or condition. And, of MANY, as he was here, being become one, he shall be happy, wife, and blessed. And still more plainly, in his commentary on Timæus, where he agrees to his author's doctrine of the fabulous invention of the foreign torments d.

4. In confirmation of all this, (i. e. of Plato's difbelief of the religious doctrine of a future state, as founded on the will and providence of the Gods) we observe in the last place, that the most intelligent of the ancients regarded what Plato faid of a future state of rewards and punishments, to be said only in the exoteric way to the people.

The famous stoic Chrysippus, when he blames Plato, as not rightly deterring men from injustice, by frightful stories of future punishments, takes it

 \*Ον κ) διϊσχυρίζομαι παίζων κ) σπεδάζων άμα, ότε θαιάτω τὶς τ τοιέτων τ αυτέ μοῖςαν αναπλήσει, χεδον έαιπες δποθαιών ή, μήτε μεθέχειν έτι στολλών τότε καθάπες νον αλοδήσεων, μιάς τε μολέας μεθειληφότα μόνον, ης όκ συλλών ένα γεζονίτα, σύδαμονά τε έσεοδαι

κ) σοφώταδον ἄμα κ) μακάςιον. Sub fin.
In this passage I understand Plato secretly to intimate, that, when he was in jest, he affirmed the future happiness of good men in a peculiar and distinct existence, which is the popular notion of a future state: but, when in earnest, that that existence was not peculiar or distinct, but a common life without particular fensations, a resolution into the ro s. And it is remarkable that the whole fentence has an elegant ambiguity, capable of either meaning. For σολλων αιθήσεων may either fignify our many passions and appetites, or our many cogitations. The denying our having the first of these, in a suture state, makes nothing against a distinct existence; but denying the second, does. His disciple Aristotle seems to have understood him as meaning it in this latter fense, when in earnest; and has so paraphrased it as to exclude all peculiar existence. See p. 211. There is the same ambiguity in έκ σολλων ένα, which may either fignify, that of his many fenfations he hath only one left, the feeling happiness; or that, from being in the number of many individuals of the fame species, he is become one, by being joined to, and united with the universal nature.

e Plut, de Stoic, repug. d See p. 143.

for granted that Plato himself gave no credit to them: for he turns his reprehension, not against that philosopher's wrong belief, but his wrong judgment, in imagining such childish terrors f could be useful to the cause of virtue.

Strabo plainly declares himself of the same opinion, when speaking of the Indian Brachmans, he fays, that they had invented fables in the manner of Plato, concerning the immeriality of the foul, and a future judgment in the shad's below; and other things of the same nature s.

Celfus owns that every thing which Plato tells us of a future state, and the happy abodes of the virtuous, is an allegory. "But what (fays he) we " are to understand by these things, is not easy for " every one to find out. To be mafter of this, we "must be able to comprehend his meaning, when " he fays, They cannot, by reason of their imbecility " and sluggishness, penetrate into the highest region. "But was their nature vigorous enough to raife itself " to so sublime a contemplation, they would then come " to understand, that this was the true beaven, and the " true irradiation." These remarkable words, befides the general conclusion to be drawn from them, confirm what we have faid of the peculiar Platonic Metempsychesis. For here Celfus resolves all Plato's meaning, in his representations of a future state of

ε Παραπλέκυσι  $\hat{j}$  κ $\hat{j}$  μύθες, ώστερ κ $\hat{j}$  ΠΛΑΤΩΝ, στεί τε ά $\hat{j}$ - βαρσίας ψυχῆς, κ $\hat{j}$   $\hat{j}$  καθ άδυ κέσται, κ $\hat{j}$  άλλα τοιαύτα. Geogr.

1. xv. p. 1040. Gron. Ld.

f 'Ως βόὲν ΔΙαφέρονα ở 'Ακκΰς κὰ ở 'Αλφίζες, δι' ὧν τὰ σται-อื่นรุเน าฮี หละเอารูเวิเรีย ณ์ ขนะสโรธร ฉัยระรายฮเ.

h Τί ο 2 ο τέτων εμφανίζει, ε σαθί γιῶιαι ξαθιον εί μη όςις ἐπαίοιν διμάιτο, τι σοτ εκίν δαείνο ο Φησιν ὑπ' αθειείας η βρα-င်ပုံကြီး ဗိုး ဗိုးဗုဒ္ ကို ရှိ၍ စီးငွေ့နေပါလို့ နဲ့ကို ဇိတ္တလိုလေ ကို ထိန်စုထုိ မှ နှုံး ကို ဇိပတ္တေ ίκωνη είη αιασχέσθαι θεοςθσα, γνώται αν ότι έκεινος ές το δ αληθώς ຮ່ຽນເຮັງ ເຮູ το ຂ່ານປີເເຮັນ Çãs. Orig. cont. Celf. 1. vii. p. 352. Sp. Ld. To understand the Lansner pas, we must consider that light rewards

rewards and punishments, into that Metempfychofis: and we shall see hereaster, that that was resolvable into the reunion of the soul with the divine nature, when it became vigorous enough to penetrate

into the highest region i.

The emperor Julian addressing himself to Heraclius the Cynic, on the subject of that sect, when he comes to speak of the double dostrine, and the admission of fable into the teachings of the philosophers, observes, that it hath it's use chiefly in ethics, (in which he includes politics k,) and in that part of theology relating to initiation, and the mysteries!. To support which he presently quotes the example of Plato, who, when he writes of theology, or as a Theologer, is full of fables in his accounts of the infernal regions m. From hence it appears that, in the opinion of this learned emperor, Plato did not only not speak his real sentiments of those matters, but that when he treated of them, it was not as a philosopher, but as a theologer; in which character the

was one of the most important circumstances of the Pagan Elyfium, as we may see in the chapter of the mysteries; where a certain ravithing as d divine light is represented, as making it so recommendable; according to that of Virgil:

1 argior hic campos æther & lumine vestit

Purpureo —

i The unfairness of readers when their passions have made them become writers, is hardly to be conceived: some of these have represented the three last testimonies as given to prove that Plato believed no future state at all: tho' the author had plainly and expressly declared but a page or two before, p. 155. that there was a fort of suture state which Plato did believe; he refers to it against the note at p. 156. and, what is more, observes here, on this last passage, that Celsus alludes to this very platonic future state.

k — ηθικόν δικονομικόν δέ, τὸ αξι λίαν δικίαν σολιτικόν δέ, τὸ . «Ει σόλι». Orat. 7.

<sup>1</sup> Καὶ τε θεολογικέ, τῶ τελιτικῶ, κὰ μυτικῷ. . Ιδ.

<sup>&</sup>quot;-- επεί κή Πλάτωνι συλλά μερυθυλογήθαι το των εν άθε σεαγμάτων θεολογεύε. 16.

ancient fages never thought themselves obliged or confined to the truth. What these fabulous relations were, he intimates, when he previously speaks of the fables taught in the Mysteries; by which he could only mean their representations of a future state: the great secret of the mysteries, the doctrine of the unity, being in his opinion of a nature directly contrary to the other.

We now come to the Peripatetics and Stoics, who will give us much less trouble. For these having in some degree, though not entirely, thrown off the legislative character, spoke more openly against a stuure state of rewards and punishments. Indeed the difference in this point, between them and the Platonists, was only from less to more referve, as appears from their all having the same common principles of philosophising.

III. ARISTOTLE was the disciple of Plato, and his rival. This emulation, though it disposed him to take a different road to fame, in a province yet unoccupied, and to throw off the legislative character; yet it set him upon writing books of laws and politics, in opposition to his master; whom he

takes every occasion to contradict.

He stuck indeed to the ancient method of the double dostrine, but with less caution and reserve. For, whereas the Pythagoreans and Platonists kept it amongst the secrets of their schools, he seems willing that all the world should take notice of it, by giving public directions to distinguish between the two kinds. Accordingly, in his Nicomachian Ethics, he expresses himself without any ceremony, and in the most dogmatic way, against a future state of rewards and punishments. Death (says he) is of all things the most terrible. For it is

n Acad. Quaft. lib. i.

o See Cic. Ep. ad Att. lib. iv. Ep. 16. — in fingulis libris

the final period of existence. And beyond that, it appears, there is neither good nor evil for the dead man to dread or hope P.

And in another place he tells us, that the foul, after it's separation from the body, will neither joy nor grieve, love nor bate, nor be subject to any passions of the like nature. And left we should suspect that this was faid of the animal life only, he goes further, and observes, that it will then neither remember, think, nor understand q. It must, therefore, according to this Philosopher, be absolutely lost, as to any separate existence.

IV. ZENO the Founder of the Porch, followed the mode, in writing of Laws, and a Republic. Agreeably to this part of his character, we find, by Lactantius, that he taught a future state of rewards and pullinments in the very terms of Plato: Esse inseres Zeno Stoicus docuit; & sedes piorum ab impiis esse discretas; & illos quidem quietas ac delectabiles involere regiones, has vero luere panas in tenebrosis locis atque in cani voraginibus horrendis. Yet, we know that he and the whole Porch held, that God governed the world only by his general providence; which did not extend either to individuals, cities or people's: And, not to infift that his follower Chrysippus laughed at these things, as the most childish of all terrors, we know too, that the phi-

[de republica] utor proæmiis, ut Aristoteles in iis, quos ¿ alepsed; vocat ---

P फार्टिइन्ल्याचीका के विद्यालीकि काईक्टर की में मेरीका देंगा निल्मानिकार के หรั, อาร สโลยีเห, อาร หลกอง ล้า. Eth. ad Nicom. lib. iii. c. 6. p. 130. Ed. Han. 1610. 810.

<sup>9 70 %</sup> AIANOE, LOAI, R. O. APIN & M'EEIN, our ist intie જારાઇમા. જોમમાં જારાઇક જારે કેંગ્રુ કો ઉપ દેશકોં અમે દેશકોં અ કેંગ્રહ્મ, દેશકે શ્રું કાંક્ય વિધાનુ દ્વારા માં où TE MNHMONETE, OLTE PIAET. De anima, 1. V.

r Inst. lib. vii fect. 7.

s Nat. Deor. 1 iii. c. 39. Vol. II.

losophic principle of his School was, that the soul died with the body t. Indeed to compliment their wise man, the Stoics taught that his soul held it out till the general conflagration: by which, when we come to speak of their opinion concerning the nature and duplicity of the soul, we shall find they

meant just nothing.

However, it was not long before the Stoics quite laid afide the legislative character; for which their Master appears to have had no talents, as we may judge by what he lays down in his Republic, that States should not busy themselves in creeting temples; for we ought not to think there is any thing holy, or sacred, or that deserves any real esteem, in the work of masons and labourers. The good man had forgot that he was writing Laws for a People; and so turned impertinently enough, to philosophise with the sloical Sage. The truth is, this sect had never any name for legislation: and therefore, as we say, in no long time, laid the study of it quite aside; after which they wrote without the least reserve, against a future state of rewards and punishments.

Thus EPICTETUS, a thorough Stoic, if ever there was any, fpeaking of death, fays, "But "whither do you go? no where to your hurt: you return from whence you came: to a friendly confociation with your kindred elements: what there was of the nature of fire in your composition, "returns to the element of fire; what there was

\* Προδήσορβο δε κράμεις, ότι κο Ζανων δ Κιτικούς όν τη σολιθεία Φασίν \*Γερά τε ολκοδομείν είδεν διάσει, τερόν 38 είδεν 75 πολιθέν, είδε πολλά άξιον κο άγιον εικοδόμων τε έγγοι κο βαιανσων. Apud Orig. cont.

Celf. p. 6.

"of earth, to earth; what of air, to air; and of water, to water. There is no Hell, nor Acheron,

"Cocytus, nor Pyriphlegethon".

In another place, he fays, "The hour of death approaches. Do not endeavour to aggravate, and make things worse than they really are; represent them to yourself in their true light. The time is now come when the materials of which you are compounded will be resolved into the elements from which they were originally taken. What hurt or cause of terror is there in this? or what is there in the world that ABSOLUTELY PERISHETH."

Antoninus fays, "He who fears death, either fears that he shall be deprived of all sense, or that he shall experience different sensations. If all sense fations cease, you will be no longer subject to pain and misery; if you be invested with senses of another kind, you will become another creature, and

" will continue to exist as such "."

Seneca, in his consolation to Marcia, daughter of the samous Cremutius Cordus the Stoic, is not at all behind him, in the frank avowal of the same principles. Cogita, nullis defunction malis affici: illa que nobis inseros faciunt terribiles, Fabulam esse nullas imminere mortuis tenebras, nec carcerem, nec slumina stagrantia igne, nec oblivionis amiem, nec tribunalia, & reos & in illa libertate tam laxa ullos

x "Hon καιρός διωθανών, μη πραγωθώ το αιάγμα, όλλ επε as έχμ ήδη καιρός την όλην, έξ ών συνήλθει, είς ίκιῖ α  $\alpha$  λι αιαλοθήναι, μ) τι δενόν, τι μέλλει διωλλοσθαν των εί τῷ κόσμα. 1 iv. 7. 1.

<sup>\*\*--</sup> Τος; εἰς ἐδὰ δεκός, ἀλλ' ὅμο ἐβόε, εἰς τὰ φίλα κὰ συξγλοῖ, εἰς τὰ τοιχὰα ὅτοι ἢι ἐν σοὶ σύος, εἰς σύος αποιτικ, ὁτοι ἦν γκοῦς, εἰς γνοῦςς ὅτοι σεκυμαίω, εἰς πιετματιος ὅτοι ὑἐαίω, εἰς ὑὰἀτιος ἐδὲις ὁ δες ἐλχέρων, κῶε Κακυτός, ἐδὲ Πυριφλιγέθων. Apud Arrian lib. iii. c. 13.

Y Ο τον θανατον φοβενον Φ, ντον διαισθησιαν φοβεντον, η αίσθησια επέροιαν, άλλι είτε οὐκέτι αισθησια, είδε κακὸ τι οι αίσθησια, είτε αλλοιοτέρα, αίσθησια κτήση, αλλοιον ζώιν ση, κ) το ζών σαυση, vin: 58. VI 2 iterum

iterum tyrannos. Luserunt ista poëta, & vanis nos agitavere terroribus. Mors emnium dolorum & solutio est, & sinis: ultra quam mala nostra non exeunt, qua nos in illam tranquillitatem, IN QUA, ANTEQUAM

NASCEREMUR, jacuimus, reponit 2.

Lucian, who, of all the Ancients, best understood the intrigues and intricacies of ancient Philofoply, appears to have had the fame thoughts of the Stoics upon the point in question. In his Jupiter Tragicus or discourse on providence, Damis, the Epicurean, arguing against providence, silences the Stoic, Timocles, when he comes to the inequality of events; because the author would not suffer his Stoic to bring in a future state to remove the difficulty. And, that nothing but decorum, or the keeping each fect to his own principles, made him leave the Stoic embarralled, appears from his Jupiter confuted, or discourse on destiny; where when Cyniscus presses Jupiter with the fame arguments against Providence, Jupiter easily extricates himself: "You appear by "this, Cynifcus, to be ignorant what dreadfull "punishments await the wicked after this life, "and what abundant happiness is referved for the " good a."

I will only observe in taking leave of this subject, that the famousstoical renovation, (which hath been opposed to what is here represented) seems to have been conceived on the natural Metempsychesis of Pythagoras. Origen gives the following account of it: "The generality of the Stoics" not only subject every thing mortal to these removations, but the Immortals likewise, and the very Gods themselves. For after the consa-

<sup>2</sup> Cap. 19.

Οθ γαλ οίσθα, δ Κυνίσκε, διλίκας, μετά του βίοι, δι στοκελί τας κολάστις ύπομένεστι, δ εν δση δι χέπειλ δεδαιμενία διατειδεστι.

<sup>&</sup>quot; gration

"gration of the Universe, which hath happened already, and will happen hereafter, in infinite fuccessions, the same face and order of things hath been and ever will be preserved from the begin-ining to the end. It is true, the men of this School to ease a little the labouring absurdity, contend for no more than the most exact resemblance of things, in one renovation, to those of another. Thus the next Socrates was not individually the same with the last, but one exactly like him; with exactly such a wire as Xantippe, and such accusers as Anytus and Melitus. Which, however, shews the folly of bringing this renovation for a proof, that the Stoics believed a future state of rewards and ponishments.

Having now gone through these race famous schools, I should have closed the section, but that I imagined the curious reader would be well pleased to know what Cicero thought, on this important point; Cicero, who sinished the conquests of his countrymen in Greece, and brought onto in triumph, those only remains their ancient grandeur, their philosophy and ploquence. But the

— Γὸν ở ᾿Απολλώνιον—εἰπεῖν, Σεμλ, ὡ Κικερων, ἐπαινῶ κỳ θαυμάζω, τ' δε ʿ, λλάδ۞ · εἰκιείρω Τ΄ τύχτυ, ὁρων, ὰ μόνα Τ΄ καλῶν ἡμῖν ὑπελείπιο, κỳ ταῦτα Ρωμαίοις Μὰ σε προσγμόρθμα, ΠΑΙΔΕΙΑΝ τε κỳ ΛΟΓΟΝ.

Plut, Vit. Cic.

Ετοϊκον οι αλείως ε΄ αίνοι την τον θυντώι τες όλι οιαθην είται φασίν, άλλα κς την τών άθανατ νης τών κατ ά ας διων, μετά γας την τὰ σανίδς εκπυρο τιν απειράκες γυνρώνην, κς απειρακες έτομετη, ή άθης ταξις απ' αρχης πέχει τελει σαλίωι γεγου τε κς έται. σειμμενοι μίδοι δε πένειν σώς ται άπειραπεικοί λώτ της Ετόας, κα όδ όπως, άπαρραλλακίθες Φορίν έσιδιαι καία σερίοδον τοις διοί τών σορτέρων σωθόλων σαλίας τια μη Σωκράτης σαλιών γένηλαι, άπαραλλακίδο τις τῷ ἐωπάνει, γαμησων ἀπαραλλακίδο τιν Εανίνιππην, κς κατηγοινιδιασόμενος στο άπορα λακίων λυτω κς Μελτώ. Origenes contra Ciyum, 1. iv. Rd. Spen. p. 208, 209. The nature of this remation is examined at large, and admirably developed in the Critical inquiry into the opinions of the ancient philosophers.

are great difficulties in getting to his real fentiments.

I shall mention some of the chief.

1. First, that which arises from the use of the double dottrine; a circumstance common to the Greek philosophy; of it's essence, and therefore, inseparable from it's existence. The Ancients who lived after Cicero, such as Clemens Alex. Origen, Synesius, Sallust the philosopher, Apuleius, do in fact speak of it as an instrument still in use; nor do any other ever mention it as a thing become obsolete. So that when Tully undertook to explain the Greek philosophy to his countrymen, he could not but employ so fashionable a vehicle of Science. But how much it contributed to hide the real sentiments of the user, we have seen above.

2. Another difficulty arises from the peculiar genius of the Sect he espoused, the New Academy; which, was entirely sceptical: It professed a way of philosophising, in which there was no room for any one to interfere with his own opinions; or, indeed, to have any. It is true, were we to consider Tully as a strict Academic, in the Grecian sense of adhering to a Sect, our enquiry would be presently at an end; or at least very impertinent: but he professed this philosophy in a much laxer way; as we shall now

fee.

3. And this leads us to another difficulty, arifing from the manner, in which the Greek philosophy was received in Italy. The Romans in general were, by their manners and dispositions, little quafied for speculative science. When they first got footing, and had begun a commerce for arts, in Greece, they entertained great jealousies of the Sophists, and used them roughly: and it was long before they could be persuaded to think favourably of a set of men, who professed themselves always able and ready to dispute for or against VIRTUE indisserted.

rently 4: and even then, the Greek philosophy was introduced into Rome, but as a more refined species of luxury, and a kind of table-furniture, fet apart for the entertainment of the Great; who were yet very far from the Grecian humour, jurare in verba magistri: they regarded the doctrines of the Sect they espoused, not as a rule of life, but only as a kind of Apparatus for their rhetoric schools; to enable them to invent readily, and reason justly, in the affairs of life. Tully, who best knew upon what footing it was received, fays no less, when he ridicules Cato for an unfashionable fellow. Hac home ingeniosissimus M. Cato auttoribus eruditissimis induttus, arripuit, NEQUE DISPUTANDI CAUSA, UT MAGNA PARS, sed ita vivendi. The least, then, we may conclude from hence is, that Cicero, laughing at those who espoused a Sect vivendi causa, did himself espouse the Academic, causa disputandi: which indeed he frankly enough confesses to his advertary, in this very oration: fatebor enim, Cato, me quoque in adolescentia, diffifum ingenio meo, quæsisse adjumenta doctrinæ. Which, in other words, is, I myself espoused a Sect of philosophy, for it's use in disputation. This flippery way, therefore, of profeffing the Greek philosophy, must needs add greatly to the embarras we complain of.

4. A fourth difficulty arises from Tully's purpose in writing his works of philosophy; which

e Orat. pro Murana. It must be owned, that these words, at first fight, seem to have a different meaning. And the dispu-

d Cicero makes the famous orator, M Antonius, give this as the reason why he hid his knowledge of the Greek philosophy from the People.—Sic decrevi [inquit Antonius] philosophari potius, ut Neoptolemus apud Ennium, paucis: nam omnino haud flacet. Sed tamen hæc est mea sententia, quam videbar exposuisse. Ego ista studia non improbo, moderata modo sint: opinionem storum studiorum, & suspicionem artificii apud eos, qui res judicent, oratori adversariam esse arbitror. Imminuit enim & oratoris auctoritatem & orationis sidem. De Orat. 1. ii. c. 37.

was, not to deliver his own opinion on any point of ethics or metaphysics, but to explain to his countrymen, in the most intelligible manner, whatfoever the Greeks had taught concerning them. In the execution of which defign, no Sect could fo well ferve his turn as the New Academy, whose principle it was, not to interfere with their own opinions: and a passage, in his Academic questions, inclines me to think, he entered late into this Sect, and not till he had formed his project. Varro, one of the dialogists, fays to him: sed de teipso quid est quod audio? Tully answers: quanam de re? Varro replies: relictam a te veterem jam, tractari autem NOVAM. Varro hints at it again, where speaking afterwards to Tully, he fays, tue funt nunc partes, qui ab antiquorum ratione nunc descifcis, & ea, quæ ab Arcefila novata funt probas, docere &cf. This further appears from a place in his Nature of the Gods & where he fays, that his espousing

tandi causa look as if the observation was confined to Stricism. For this Sect had so entirely engrossed the Dialectics, that the followers of Zeno were more frequently called Dialectici than Stoici. Notwithstanding this, it plainly appears, I think, from the contest, that the other fenfe is the true. Tully introduces his observation on Cato's singularity in these words: et quonian non oft nobis heec oratio habenda aut cum imperita multitudine, aut in aliquo conventu agrestium, audacius jaulo de studiis humanitatis, quæ & mihi & vobis nota & jucunda sunt, disseutabo. Here he declares, his defign is not to give his thoughts of the Stoics in particular, (though they furnished the occasion) but of the Greek philosophy in general, de Budis humanitatis. He then runs through the Stoical paradoxes, and concludes—Hac homo ingeniosissimus M. C. arripuit, &c. But had it been his intention to confine the observation to the Stoics, on account of their great name in logic, he must have said hanc, not hac: it being their logic, not their paradoxes, which was of use in diffutation.

f Manutius and Davies, vho, I suppose, did not attend to what passed before, agree to throw out the word nune, as per-

feetly useless and infignificant.

the New Academy, of a fudden, was a thing altogether unlooked for. Multis etiam fensi mirabile videri, eam nobis potissimum probatam esse philosophiam, que lucem eriperet & quasi noliem quandam rebus offunderet, desertaque disciplina, & jam pridem relitae patrocinium NEC OPINATUM a nobis esse susceptum. The change then was late; and after the ruin of the Republic; when Cicero retired from business, and had leisure, in his recess, to plan and execute this noble undertaking. So that a learned critic appears to have been mistaken, when he supposed the choice of the New Academy was made in his youth. This Sell, (says he) did best egree with the vast genius and ambitious spirit of young Cicero h.

5. But the principal difficulty proceeds from the feveral and various characters he fuftained in his life, and writings; which habituated him to feign and diffemble his opinions: here, (though he acted neither a weak nor an unfair part,) he becomes perfectly inferutable. He may be confidered as an Orator, a Statefman, and a Philosopher; characters, all equally perfenated i; and no one more

h Remarks upon a late discourse of freethinking, Part. ii. Rem. 53. 1. As a STATESMAN, he discharged the office of a Patriot. urbis confervator & parens, in a Government torn in pieces by the diffensions between Senate and People. But could this be done by speaking his real fentiments to both? both were very faulty; and, as faulty men generally are, too angry to hear reafon I have given an instance below, in the case of the Catiline conspiracy. And the inue of it declares the wisdom of that conduct. He faved the Republic. 2. As a Philosopher, his end and defign in writing was not to deliver his own opinion, but to explain the Grecian philosophy. On which account he blames those as too curious, who were for knowing his own sentiments. In pursuance of this design he brings in Stoics, Epicureans, Platonists, Academics new and old, in order to instruct the Romans in their various opinions, and feveral ways of reasoning. But whether it be himfelf or others that are brought upon the stage, it is the Academic, not Cicero; it is the Stoic, the Epicurean, not Balbus nor Velleius, who deliver their opinions.

the real man than the other: but each of them taken up, and laid down, for the occasion. This appears from the numerous inconfiftencies we find in him, throughout the course of his sustaining them. In his oration de Harusp. respon. in senatu, when the popular superstition was inflamed by present prodigies, he gives the highest character of the wisdom of their ancestors, as Founders of their established religion: "Égo vero primum habeo " auctores ac magistros religionum colendarum " majores nostros: quorum mihi tanta fuisse sapi-" entia videtur, ut satis superque prudentes sint, " qui illorum prudentiam, non dicam affequi, fed, " quanta fuerit, perspicere possint." Yet in his treatise of Laws, as the reader has seen abovek, he frankly declares, that the folly of their ancestors had suffered many depravities to be brought into Religion. Here the Philosopher confuted the Statesman; as, in another instance, the Statesman seems to have got the better of the Philosopher. He defends the paradoxes of the Stoics in a philosophical differtation: But in his oration for Murana, he ridicules those paradoxes in the freest manner. Nor under one and the same character, or at one and the same time, is he more confistent. In the orations against Catiline, when he opens the conspiracy to the Senate, he represents it as the most deep laid design, which had infected all orders and degrees of men amongst them: Yet, when he brings the same affair before the People, he talks of it as only the wild and fenfeless escape of a few desperate wretches: it being necessary for his purpose, that the Senate

<sup>3.</sup> As an ORATOR, he was an advocate for his client, or more properly personated him. In this case, then, he was to speak the sentiments of his client, not his own.

k See book ii. fect. 6.

and *People*, who viewed the confpiracy from feveral flations, should fee it in different lights.

We meet with numbers of the like contradi-Etions, delivered in his own person, and under his philosophic character. Thus, in his books of divination, he combats all augury,  $\mathfrak{S}_c$ . and yet, in his philosophic treatise of laws, he delivers himself in their favour; and in fo ferious and positive a manner, that it is difficult not to believe him to be in earneft. In a word, he laughed at the opinions of State, when he was amongst the Philosophers; he laughed at the doctrines of the Philosophers, when he was cajoling an Affembly; and he laughed heartily at both, when withdrawn amongst his friends in a corner. Nor, is this the worlt part of the story. He hath given us no mark to distinguish his meaning: For, in his Academic questions 1, he is ready to fwear he always speaks what he thinks: Jurarem per Jovem Deofque penates, me & ardere studio veri reperiendi, & ea sentire quæ diceremm: Yet, in his Nature of the Gods", he has strangely changed his tone: Qui autem requirunt, quid quaque de

<sup>1</sup> Lib. iv. Sect. 20.

m Lucullus had been declaiming very tragically against the Academy, when Tully entered on it's defence; in which he thought it proper to premise something concerning himself. Aggrediar igitur, (says he,) si pauca ante, quasi de fama mea dixero. He then declares, that, had he embraced the Academy out of vanity, or love of contradiction, it had not only reslected on his sense, but on his honour. Itaque nisi ineptum putarem in tali disputatione id sacere, quod cum de republica disceptatur sieri interdum solet: jurarem per Jovem &c. From hence, I gather that though the question here be of the Academic philosophy, and of Cicero as an Academic, yet, as he tells us, he is now to vindicate himself in a point in which his honour was concerned, the protestation is general, and concerns his constant turn of mind; which always inclined him, he says, to speak his sentiments.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>n</sup> Lib. i. Sect. 5.

172 The Divine Legation BOOK III. re ipfi sentiamus, curiofius id faciunt quam necesse est.

If it be asked then, in which of his writings we can have any reasonable affurance of his true fentiments? I reply, scarce in any, but his EPISTLES. Nor is this faid to evade any material evidence that may be found in his other works, in favour of a future state of rewards and punishment: on the contrary, there are many very fignal instances of his disbelief, as far as we can hazard a judgment of his mind. As in his Offices, which bids the fairest of any to come from his heart, he delivers himfelf very effectually against it; as will appear in the next fection. And in his oration for Cluentius to the Judges, he fpeaks with yet more force on the fame fide the question: " Nam name quidem quid tan-" dem illi mali mors attulit? nisi forte ineptiis ac " Jazzlis ducimur, ut existimemus islum apud in-" feros impiorum supplicia perferre, &c. Quæ si " faifa funt, id quod omnes intelligunt, quid ei tandem " aliud mors eripuit prater fenfum doloris?

Nor will most of these passages, which are usually brought in support of the opinion, that Tully did really believe the immertality of the soul, stand in any account against these: Because, as will be shewn, in the next fanction, they best agree to a kind of immortality very consistent with a thorough disbelief of a future state of rewards and punish-

ments o.

O As to the celebrated argument of Plato for the immortality of the foul, explained and inforced by Cicero, it is so big with impicty and nonsense, that one would wonder how any christian Divine could have the indiscretion to recommend it as doing credit to ancient I hilosophy; or to extol the inventers and espousers of it, as having delivered and entertained very just, rational, and proper notions concerning the immortality of the human soul. If we examine this philosophy as it is delivered us by Plato in his Phædrus, or as it is translated by Cicero in

It is only then (as we fay) in his Epistles to his friends, where we fee the man divested of the Poli-

his first Tusculan, we shall find it gives the human soul the attributes of the Divine Being, and supposes it to have been from eternity, uncreated and felf-existent. Speaking of the principle of motion, or the foul, it fays, Principii autem nulla est origo: nam e principio oriuntur omnia: ipsum autem nulla ex re alia nasci potest: nec enim esset id principium quod signeretur aliunde.-Id autem nec na/c' potest, nec mori. Hac est propria natura animi atque vis; quæ fi elt una ex omnibus, quæ fe ipfa femper moveat, neque rata certe ed, et æterna est. I Tuje. c. 2, 3. It is plain too, that this argument affigns the human foul a necessary mamor afty, or an immortality which arifes from it's nature and energe, or from it's original and inherent powers, and not from the Will or appointment of God. We are told that the foul is immortal, because it is a felf-moving fubstance; for that a felf-moving substance can never cease to be, fince it will always have a power of existing within itself, independent of any foreign or exernal cause. And what can be faid more of God hamielf: fentit igitur animus fe moveri, quod cum Entit, illud una fentit se vi sur, non aliena, moveri; nec accidere juse, ut ijje unquam a le dilercini. 1 . usc. c 24. Hiere it's immortality is not luggofed to arile from the influence of any foreign or external cause, but is refolled into the natural and inherent powers of the foul itelf. Plato fays, imedor of agive พระผ หรู่ ผู้ผู้สุดให้เรียก และอุดิ สะสมหมาะนี้เล่ — รดาย อั๊ะ อะระ สุดาหรือผู้สา คุณ หางทางก็ลม คิบาลาชา, เรีย ละสารหาก สาระบางการ หา ล่วล ลราม ประหา The nevefity here spoken of was supposed to arise from an internal faculty and power of the foul, or nom the principle of telf-motion. The force of all this, has been shuffled over by the writers against the D. L. with only repeating, that, Cicero inferred the immortality of the foul from it's monderful forcers and faculties, on it's principle of felf metion, it's memory, invention, wit and comprehenced. As to felf-motion the word is equivocal, and may either fightly power given to a being to begin motion; or a power interest and effential to a being, who has all things within itself, and receives nothing from without. Now we have thewn, that Plato and his followers afed felf motion, when applied to the foul, in this latter fense; and from thence inferred a NLCESSARY immortality in that being which had it; an immortality which implied increation and felf-existence. As to the other powers and faculties of memory, invention, wit and comprobension, whatsoever imm retality may be logically deduced from them, it is not that which Cicero deduces: For as we see his is a strict and proper immortality, an existence from all eternitician

tician, the Sophist, and the Advocate: And there he professes his disbelief of a future state of rewards and punishments in the frankest and freest manner. To L. Mescinius he says: "Sed ut illa secunda moderatè "tulimus, sic hanc non solum adversam, sed fun-"ditus eversam fortunam fortiter ferre debemus; " ut hoc faltem in maximis malis boni confequa-"mur, ut mortem, quam etiam beati contemnere " debeamus, propterea quod nullum sensum esset " habitura, nunc sic affecti, non modo contemnere "debeamus, fed etiam optare P." In his epiftle to Torquatus, he fays: "Ita enim vivere ut non sit " vivendum, miserrimum est. Mori autem nemo " fapiens miserum dixit, ne beato quidem-sed "hæc confolatio levis eit; illa gravior, qua te uti "fpero: Ego certe utor. Nec enim dum ero, " angar ulla re, cum omni vacem culpa: Et si non "ero, fenfu omnino carebo q." Again, to the

ty, to all eternity: In a word, the immortality of the Supreme Being himself. Si cernerem (fays Tully) quemadmodum nasci possent [animi hominum] etiam quemadmodum interirent viderem. I Tulc. c. 24. And again, when he proves the immortality of the foul against Panætius, he goes upon the principle that the foul cannot be shewn to be immortal, but on the suppofition of its being actually ungenerated. Volt enim [Panætius] quod nemo negat, quicquid natum fit interire; - nasci autem animos, quod declaret corum fimilitudo -- nihil necessitatis, cur nascatur, animi similitudo.—1 Tusc. c. 32, -3. I would therefore have the friends of REASON, not to fay of REVELATION, confider whether these extravagant notions of the human foul, do any honour to ancient Philosophy? and whether Tully had not acted a more decent and modest part to have held confiftently, even with Epicurus, the mortality of the foul, than with Plato that it was uncreated, felf-existent, and necessarily eternal?

F Fam. Ep. 1. v. Ep. 21.

q Lib. vi. Ep. 3. Some have taken the ero and non ero, in this passage, to relate generically, to existence or non-existence abjolutely; and not, as certainly Tully meant, specifically, to the state of existence or non-existence here, i. e. life or death. But if that were his meaning, that if he had no being he should have fame

fame person r: "Deinde quod mihi ad consolatio"nem commune tecum est, si jam vocer ad exitum
"vitæ, non ab ea republica avellar, qua caren"dum esse doleam, præsertim cum id sine ullo
"fensu futurum sit." And again to his friend
Toranius s: "Cum consilio profici nihil possit,
"una ratio videtur, quicquid evenerit, ferre mo"derate, præsertim cum omnium rerum mors sit
"extremum." That Cicero here speaks his real
sentiments, is beyond all doubt. These are letters
of consolation to his friends, when he himself, by
reason of the ill state of Public Assairs, much wanted
consolation; a season when men have least difguise, and are most disposed to lay open their
whole hearts:

Nam veræ voces tum demum pectore ab imo Ejiciuntur, & eripitur persona, manet res.

Lucret.

Here his real fentiments t are delivered positively; which in his Tusculan disputations he advances only

no sense. Torquatus, for so wonderful, a discovery, might well have returned him his proverb quoted in this Epistle, Admiras. But the foregoing passage from the epistle to Mescinius, in which we find the same thought, and in the same expression, puts the meaning out of doubt. Add to this, that it was the very language of the Epicureans, and used by Lucretius as an antidote against the sear of death,

" Scilicet haud nobis quidquam, qui non eri sus tum,

"Accidere omnino poterit sensumque movere. But let it be obierved, that when Cicero talks of death as of the end of man, he does not make this conclusion on the Epicurean principle, that the foul was a mere quality, but on the Platonic, that it was resolved into the substance from whence it was extracted, and had no longer a particular existence.

\*\* Lib. vi. Ep. 4. \*\* Lib. vi. Ep. 21.

t Lib. vi. Ep. 4.

t The learned Author of the exact and elegant history of Cicero, hath fince turned this circumstance to the support of the contrary opinion, with regard to his Hero's sentiments:

But some (says he) have been apt to consider them [i, e. the

hypo-

hypothetically; but with a clearness that well comments the conciseness of the foregoing passages.

" passages in Tully's philosophic writings in favour of a future " flate] as the flourishes rather of his eloquence than the con-" clusions of his reason. Since in other parts of his works he " feems to intimate not only a diffidence, but a disbelief of the " immortality of the foul, and a future state of rewards and " punishments, and especially in his letters, where he is sup-" posed to declare his mind with the greatest frankness. But "-in a melancholy hour, when the spirits are depressed, the " fame argument would not appear to him with the same force, " but doubts and difficulties get the afcerdant, and what hu-" moured his present chagrin find the readiest admission. The " passages alledged i. e. in this place of the Div. Leg.] were " all of this kind, written in the season of his dejection, when "all things were going wrong with him, and in the height of "Cæsar's power," & c. Vol. II. p. 561. Ed. 4". Thus, every thing hath two Academical handles. But still, my candid friend will allow me to fay they cannot both be right. It is confessed that a desponding temper, like that of Cicero's, will, in a melancholy hour, be always inclined to fear the worst. But to what are it's fears confined? Without doubt to the iffue of that very affair, for which we are diffressed. A melancholy hour would have just the contrary influence on our other cogitations. And this by the wife and gracious disposition of Acture; that the mind may endeavour to make up by an abundance of hope in one quarter, what through the perfuasion of it's fears, it hath suffered itself, to part with, in another. So that unlefs Ciccro was made differently from all other men, one might venture to fay, his kopes of future good (had Philosophy permitted him to entertain any hopes at all) would have risen in proportion to his fears of the frejent. And this is feen every day in fact. For it is nothing but this natural disposition that makes men of the world fo generally fly even to Superstition for the folace of their misfortunes. Lut the excellent author of the critical inquiry into the opinions of the amient philosophers goes further. "Cicero (fays he) very frankly declares in his Tusculans "themselves that this [the mortality or the no separate existence of " the foul was the most real and effectual, the most solid and " fubflantial comfort that could be administered against the " fear of death. In his first Tusculan, he undertakes to prove, "that death was not an evil; and this, 1st, Because it was not " attended with any actual punishment, or positive and real " mifery. 2ally, He rises higher, and labours to prove, that M. Video

"M. Video te altè spectare & velle in cœlum migrare. A. Spero fore, ut contingat id nobis.
Sed fac, ut isti volunt, animos non remancre
post mortem.—M. Mali vero quid affert ista
fententia? Fac enim sic animum interire, ut
corpus. Num igitur aliquis dolor, aut omnino

"men ought to look upon death as a bleffing rather than an "evil, as the foul, after its departure from the body, might be "happy in another life. In the first part he supposes the mor-"tality and extinction of the foul at death; in the fecond he " plainly supposes, that it will survive the body. Now the "question is, on which doctrine does he lay most stress; or, "which of these two notions, in the opinion of Cicero, would " ferve bell to fortify and prepare men against the fear of death? " And luckily Cicero himfelf has long fince determined this " point for us; having in the first Tusculan brought several rea-"fons to prove the immortality of the foul, he after all very "frankly declares, that they had no great validity and force; "that the most folid and substantial argument, which could be " urged against the fear of death, was the very consideration ad-" vanced in his letters, or the doctrine autich makes it the utter "feriod of our being: And in the remaining part of the book he proceeds to argue chiefly on this supposition, as being the best calculated to support men against the sear and terror of Death. "The arguments which he urged to prove the immortality of "the foul, feem fornetimes to have had great weight with the " person, to whom they were immediately address'd; he de-" clares himself fond of the opinion, and resolves not to part "with it. Nemo me de immortalitate depellet. To this Cicero " replies, laudo id quidem; etsi nihil nimis oportet considere: "movemur enim sæpe aliquo acute concluso: labamus muta-" musque sententiam clarioribus etiam in rebus: in his est enim " aliqua obscuritas. Id igitur si acciderit, simus armati. c. 32. "He does not feem to lay any great stress on the notion of a "future state; nihil oportet nimis considere. He owns that "the arguments, alledged in support of it, were rather speci-"ous than folid: movemur enim fæpe aliquo acutè concluso. "That they were not plain and clear enough to make any " strong and lasting impression: Labamus mutamusque senten-"tiam clarioribus etiam in his rebus; in his est enim aliqua " obscuritas .- That therefore the best remedy at all events, " would be the notion that the foul dies with the body: id igi-"tur fi acciderit, fimus armati. Having then explained what

" post mortem sensus in corpore est?—Ne in ani-"mo quidem igitur sensus remanet, ipse enim "nusquam est. Hoc premendum etiam atque " etiam est argumentum, confirmato illo, de quo, " si mortales animi funt, dubitare non possumus, "quin tantus interitus in morte fit, ut ne minima quidem suspicio sensus relinquatur s." Now, this is the very language of the Epicureans, as appears from the following words of Pliny: " Post fepulturam aliæ atque aliæ manium ambages. "Omnibus a suprema die eadem, quæ ante pri-" mum: nec magis a morte sensus ullus aut coropori aut animæ quam ante natalem. Eadem enim vanitas in futurum etiam fe propagat, -" alias immortalitem animæ, alias transfiguratio-" nem, alias fenfum inferis dando, & manes co-"lendo, deumque faciendo, qui jam etiam homo " esse desierit. Quæ (malum) ista dementia, ite-" rari vitam morte? Quæve genitis quies unquam, " si in sublimi sensus animæ manet t."

"he had to fay on the immortality of the foul, he proceeds to few that death could not be confidered as an evil, on the sup-

" position that the soul was to perish with the body.

"When therefore he would teach men to contemn the ter"rors of death, he grounds his main argument on the morta"lity of the foul. As to the notion of a future flate, it was
"maintained by arguments too fubtile to work a real and lafting
"conviction; it was not thought clear enough to make any
"deep and fitrong impression. He has therefore recourse to the
"extinction of the soul, as the most comfortable consideration
"that could be employed against the fear of death. This was
"not then a topic that was peculiar to the season of dejection
"and distress; it was not thrown out only accidentally, when
"he was not considering the subject, but was used in the works
"that were deliberately and professed by written on this very
"point. It could not therefore be occasional only, and suited to
"the present circumstances, as Dr. Middleton in his reasoning
"all along supposes."

• Tufe. Disp. lib. i. c. 34—36. • Nat. Hist. lib. vii. c. 53.

PLUTARCH was amongst the Greeks, what Cicero was amongst the Latins, as far as concerned the business of delivering and digesting the various opinions of the Philosophers. In his famous tract of Superstition he uses their common arms to combat that evil; and expresses himself with uncommon force where he speaks of a future state as an error essential to superstition, and what the general voice of Reason, interpreted by sound Philosophy, disclaims. "Death is the final period of our "being. But Superstition fays no. - She "ftretches out life beyond life itself. Her fears " extend further than our existence. She has joined 66 to the idea of death, that other inconfiftent idea of " eternal life in mifery. For when all things come to " an end, then, in the opinion of Superstition, they " begin to be endless "."

I will beg leave to conclude this fection with two observations relative to the general argument.

1. We have just given a passage from the oration for Cluentius, in which, Tully having ridiculed the popular sables concerning a future state, he subjoins, if these are salse, as all men see they are, what bath death deprived him of, besides a sense of pain ?

ν— σίοας ζη βίε σᾶσιν ἀνθεώποις δθάναθο τῆς δε δειστθαιμονίας, ουδ' Ετ⊙ ἀλλ' ὑπεβαλλει τοὺς ἔρους ἐπέκεινα τὰ ζῆν, μακρότερην τὰ βίε ποιοῦτα τὸν Φύδοι, κὴ συναπίουσα τῷ θανάτω κακῶν ὀπίνοιαν ἀθαιάτων' κὴ ὅτε σαυεται πραγμάτων, ἄεχεόται δοκούσα μὴ σαυομένων.

w Quæ si salsa sunt, id quod omnes intelligunt, quid ei tandem aliud mors eripuit præter sensum doloris?—Seneca reassons in the same manner. Mors contemni debet magis quam solet: multa enim de illa credimus. Multorum ingeniis certatum est ad augendam ejus infamiam. Descriptus est carcer infernus, & perpetua nocte oppressa regio, in qua

<sup>--- &</sup>quot;ingens janitor orci, &c.

Sed etiam cum persuaseris istas fabulas esse, nec quicquam defunctis superesse quod timeant, subit alius metus, æque enim timor ne apud inferos sint, quam ne nusquam. Ep. 83.

From this inference of the Orator it appears, that we have not concluded amifs, when, from feveral quotations, interspersed throughout this work, in which a difbelief of the common notion of a future state of rewards and punishments is implied, we have inferred the writer's disbelief of a future state of rewards and punishments in general. 2. We have feen the Philosophers of every fect, one while speaking directly for, and at another, as directly against a future state of rewards and punishments, without intimating the least change in their principles, or making the least hesitation in their professions: So that either we must hold them guilty of the most gross and impudent contradictions, which their characters will not fuffer us to conceive of them; or elfe admit the explanation given above of the DOUBLE DOCTRINE, and the different methods of their exoteric and esoteric discipline.

Yet to all this it hath been said, "If the Phisolution of a God; why
solution of that reason
solution of the difficulty.
solution of If the Phisolution of a God; why
solution of a God; why
solution of the Divinition of a God; why
solution of the Divinition of a God; why
solution of a God; why

1. At the very time the Philosophers discard the popular Divinities they declare for the being of a God. Thus when Varro had said that Hercules

and Æsculapius, Castor and Pollux were not Gods; he adds, they only have a right notion of God, who conceive him to be a Soul, actuating and governing all things by his power and wisdom \*. But when these Philosophers exploded Styx, Acheron, and Cocytus did they ever substitute any other future state of rewards and punishments in their place?

2. The Philosophers give the popular stories of the infernal regions as the only foundation and support of future rewards and punishments; so that, if they explode the popular stories, they must explode the things themselves. And what is more, they tell us that they did so. But was this the case concerning their popular Divinities? Do they ever represent these as the only foundation and support of

the belief of a Deity?

3. Again, The Philosophers held a PRINCIPLE (and we are now about to enter upon that matter) which was inconfiftent with a future state of rewards and punishments: in consequence of which they formally, and in express words, disclaim and reject all such state and condition. But I know of no principle they held, inconsistent with the belief of a God; nor of any declarations they ever made against such belief. We conclude, therefore, that the two cases are altogether unlike and unrelated.

y Quæ funt autem illa, quæ prolata in multitudinem nocent? Hæc, inquit, non esse Deos Herculem, Æsculapium, Castorem, Pullucem. Proditur enim a doctis, quod homines fuerint, et homana conditione defecerint. - But the fame Varro fays,-Quod hi foli ci videantur animadvertisse, quid effet Deus, qui crediderunt eum esse animam, motu et ratione mundum gubernantem. Apud August. de Civ. Dei, 1. iv. c. 27-31.

## SECT. IV.

OTWITHSTANDING this full evidence against the Philosophers; I much doubt, the general prejudice in their favour, supported by the reasonableness of the doctrine itself, will be yet apt

to keep the reader's opinion undetermined.

I shall therefore, in the last place, explain the causes which withheld the Philosophers from believing: and these will appear to have been certain fundamental principles of the ancient Greek Philosophy, altogether inconsistent with the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments.

But to give this its due force, it will be proper to premife, that the conflitution of that Philofophy, being above measure refined and speculative, it was always wont to judge and determine
rather on METAPHYSICAL than on MORAL maxims; and to stick to all consequences, how absurd
soever, which were seen to arise from such considerations.

Of this, we have a famous instance in the ancient Democritic Philosophy: which holding, that not only fensations, but even the cogitations of the mind, were the mere passion of the Thinker; and so, all knowledge and understanding, the same thing with fense; the consequence was, that there could not be any error of salse judgment; because all passion was true passion, and all appearance true appearance. From hence it followed, that the sun and moon were no bigger than they seemed to us: and these men of reason chose rather to avow this conclusion, than to renounce the metaphysic principle which led them into it.

So just, we see, is that censure which a celebra-

ted French writer passes upon them: when the Philofopkers once befot themselves with a prejudice, they are even more incurable than the People themselves; because they befot themselves not only with the prejudice, but with the false reasonings employed to support it.

The regard to metaphysic principles being so great, we shall see, that the Greek Philosophers must needs reject the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments, how innumerable and invincible soever the meral arguments are which may be brought to support it, when we come to shew, that there were two METAPHYSICAL PRINCIPLES concerning God and the soul, universally embraced by all, which necessarily exclude all notion of a future state of reward and punishment.

The first principle, which led the philosophers to conclude against such a future state was, that God could neither be angry nor hurt any one. This, Tully assures us, was held universally; as well by those who believed a providence, as by those who believed not: "At hoc quidem commune est omnium phi-" losophorum, non eorum modo, qui Deum ni-" hil habere ipsum negotii dicunt, & nihil exhi-" bere alteri: fed eorum etiam, qui Deum sem-" per agere aliquid & moliri volunt, numquam "nec irasci Deum nec nocere". What conclusion the Epicureans drew from hence, (those who, he here says, held, Deum nihil habere ipsum negotii) he tells us in another place, by the mouth of Vel-

N 4

y Quand les philosophes s'entêtent une sois d'un prejugé, ils sont plus incurables que le peuple même; parce qu'ils s'entêtent également & du prejugé & des fausses raisons dont ils le soutiennent. Fontenelle Hist. des Oracles.

leius their spokesman. Intelligitur enim, (an expression denoting that, in this point, the philosophers were agreed) "à beata, immortalique na-"tura, & iram & gratiam segregari: quibus re-"motis, nullos a superis impendere METUS a. And that the other Sects drew the same conclusion (which infers the denial of a future state of rewards and punishments) we shall now see by Cicero himself, who speaks for them all.

He is here commending Regulus for preferring the public good to his own, and the bonest to the. profitable; in diffuading the release of the Carthaginian prisoners, and returning back to certain mifery, when he might have spent his age at home in peace and pleasure. All this, he observes, was done out of regard to his oath. But it may, perhaps, fays he, be objected, what is there in an oath? The violator need not fear the wrath of Heaven; for all Philosophers hold, that God cannot be angry or hurt any one. He replies, that, indeed, it was a consequence of the principle of God's not being angry, that the perjured man had nothing to fear from divine vengeance: but then it was not this fear, which was really NOTHING, but justice and good faith, which made the fanction of an oath. The learned will chuse to hear him in his own words: "M. Atilius Regulus Carthaginem rediit: " neque eum caritas patriæ retinuit, nec suorum. " Neque vero tum ignorabat se ad crudelissimum " hostem, & ad exquisita supplicia proficisci: Sed "jusjurandum conservandum putabat. Quid est "igitur, dixerit quis, in jurejurando? Num ira-"tum timemus jovem? At hoc quidem commune " eft omnium philosophorum.—Numquam nec rasci Deum, nec nocere.—Hæc quidem ra-" tio non magis contra Regulum, quam contra " omne jusjurandum valet: Sed in jurejurando,

"non qui metus, sed quæ vis sit, debet intelligi. Est enim jusjurandum assirmatio religiosa: Quod autem assirmatè, quasi Deo teste, promiseris, id tenendum est: Jam enim non ad iram Deo-rum, quæ nulla est; sed ad justitiam & ad si-mem pertinet."

Here we fee, Tully owns the confequence of this univerfal principle; that it overthrew the notion of divine punishments: And it will appear prefently, that he was not fingular in this concession; but spoke the fense of his Grecian masters.

A modern reader, full of the philosophic ideas of these late ages, will be surprized, perhaps, to be told, that this consequence greatly embarrassed Antiquity; when he himself can so easily evade it, by distinguishing between the human passions of anger and fondness, and the divine attributes of justice and goodness; on which the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments is invincibly established. But the Ancients had no such precise ideas of the divine Nature: They knew not well how to sever anger from its justice, nor sendness from its goodness.

Dacier, who understood the genius of antiquity very well, is plainly of this opinion, as appears from his comment on these

b Cap. 26, 27, 28, 29. It is true, the same Tully says, ii. 3. deos placatos pietas efficiet et sanctitas; which looks as if he thought the Gods might be angry: and that, therefore, by, quæ nulla est, in the quotation above, he did not mean, what the words imply, quæ vana et commentitia est; but, quæ nibil ad rem pertinet, which they do not imply. But placatos is not here used in the strict specific sense of appeased, which implies preceding anger; but in the more loose generic sense of propitious, which implies no such preceding displeasure. And my reason for understanding the word in this sense, is, that, two or three lines afterwards, he declares it to be the opinion of the Philosophers (to which he agrees) Deos non nocere: But this opinion was sounded on that other, in question, Deos non irasci.

This we shall now shew, by an illustrious instance, lest the reader should suspect that, of an obscure speculative Principle, we have seigned one

of general credit and influence.

LACTANTIUS having set up for the defender of Christianity, found nothing so much hindered its reception with the Learned as the doctrine of a FUTURE JUDGMENT, which their universal principle, that God could not be angry, absolutely opposed. To strike at the root of this evil, he composed a discourse, which Jerom calls, pulcherrimum opus, intituled, DE IRA DEI: For he had observed, he tells us, that this Principle was now much spread amongst the common People 4; he lays the blame of it upon the Philosophers e; and tells us, as Tully had done before, that all the Philosophers agreed to exclude the passion of anger from the Godhead f.

So that the general fyllogism, Lactantius proposed to answer, was this:

If God hath no affections of fondness or hatred, love or anger; he cannot reward or punish.

words of Antoninus-If there be Gods, then leaving the world is no fuch dreadfull thing; for you may be fure they will do you no karm.—ει μεν θεοι έισιν, είδεν δεινόν. κακώ γαρ σε εκ αν αθιδαλοιεν. -Comme les Stoiciens n'avoient aucune idée ni de peines, ni de recompenses eternelles après la mort, et que le plus grand caractere qu'ils reconnoissoient en Dieu, estoit une bonté infinié, ils estoient persuadez qu'apres cette vie on n'avoit rien à craindre, et que c'estoit une chose entierement opposée à la nature de Dieu, de faire du mal. La veritable religion a tiré les hommes d'une securité si pernicieuse, &c. - The learned Critic, indeed, expresses himself very ill, confounding the premisses and conclusion, the cause and effect, all the way, one with another; but his meaning is plain enough.

d Animadverti plurimos existimare non irasci Deum.

· Iidem tamen a philosophis irretiti, & falsis argumentationi-1 Ita omnes philosophi de ira consentiunt. bus capti.

But he hath no affections; —— Therefore, &c.

Let us fee then how he manages: For although he knew Christianity but imperfectly, he was exquisitely well skilled in the strong and weak side of Philosophy. A modern answerer would certainly have denied the major; but that was a Principle received by all parties, as Lactantius himself gives us to understand, when he says, that the Principle of God's not being angry destroyed all religion, by taking away a future state z. He had nothing lest then but to deny the minor: And this, he tells us, is

his purpose to undertake h.

His business then is to prove, that God hath human paffions: And though, by feveral expressions, dropped up and down, he feems to be fully fenfible of the grossness of this Principle; yet, on the other hand, all Philosophy agreeing to make it the necessary support of a future state, he sets upon his task in good earnest, avoids all refinements, and maintains that there are in God, as there are in man, the passions of love and batred. These indeed are of two kinds in man, reasonable and unreasonable; in God, the reasonable only is to be found. But to make all fure, and provide a proper subject for these passions, he contends strongly for God's having a human form: No discreditable notion, at that time, in the Church; and which, if I might be indulged a conjecture, I would suppose, was first

h Hæc [nempe ut irascatur Deus] tuenda nobis, & asserenda sententia est: in ea enim summa omnis & cardo religionis pietatisque versatur.

gionem—Sive igitur gratiam Deo, five iram, five utrumque detraxeris, religionem tolli necesse est.

introduced for that very purpose, to which, Lactantius here enforces it 1.

But it is very observable, that our author introduceth this monstrous notion of God's baving a buman form, with an artful attempt, supported by all his eloquence, to discredit buman reason; so as the reader may be disposed to take his word, that nothing could be known of God but by Revelation. This is an old trick of the disputers of all times, to make reprisals upon Reason; which when found too stubborn to yield, must be represented as too weak to judge. And when once we find an author, who would be valued for his logic, begin with depreciating Reason; we may be assured he has some very unreasonable paradox to advance k.

I. But it may be objected, perhaps, that this principle, of God's not being angry, only concluded

k So when the learned Huetius would pass upon his readers a number of slight chimerical conjectures for *Demonstrations*, he introduces his work by cavilling at the certainty of the princi-

ples of Geometry.

We fee here how the Orthodox evaded this conclusion of pagan philosophy, against a state of suture punishment. Would you know how the Heretics managed? They went another way to work, which it may be just worth while to mention. The Creator of the invisible world (or the first cause) the Marcionites called the GOOD; and the creator of the visible world, the Si de Marcionis argueris hæresi, quæ alterum bonum, alterum justum Deum ferens, illum invisibilium, hunc visibilium creatorem. — Hieron. Ep. ad Pammach. Now they agreed in this, with the Pagans, that the Good could not; but that the Just would punish; whose office it was to execute vengeance on the wicked. And, at the same time, holding an EVIL PRINCI-PLE, they called this Just the MIDDLE, whole office is thus defcribed in the dialogue against Marcion. -To those who conform themfelves to the GOOD, the MIDDLE PRINCIPLE gives peace; but to those who obey the EVIL, the MIDDLE inflicts tribulation and anguish. 🕹ν μέση αρχή ύπηκουσι τῷ άγάθῷ ἄνεσιν διδώση, ύπηκόυσι δὲ τῷ wornes θλίτι διδωσι. Thus did thefe Heretics divest the first Cause, or the Good, of his attribute of justice; and gave it to the Middle principle, because they were not able to sever it from anger.

against a future state of punishments, and not of rewards: Many of the philosophers holding the affection of grace and favour; though they all denied that of anger; as Lactantius expressly assures us: Ita omnes philosophi de ira consentiunt, de gratia discrepant. To this it may be replied,

1. That, when the fanction of *punishment* is taken off, the greatest influence of a future state is deftroyed. For while the ancients made the rewards of

Elyfium only temporary,

Has omnes, ubi mille rotam volvere perannos,  $\mathcal{E}_c$ , they made the punishments of Tartarus *eternal*.

Sedet, æternumque fedebit Infelix Thefeus.

This Plato teaches us in feveral places of his works!. And Celfus, is fo far from rejecting it, that he ranks it in the number of those doctrines which should never be abandoned, but maintained to the very last m.

It is true, that, feveral passages of Antiquity may be objected to what we say against the *eternity of rewards*; particularly this of Cicero: "Omnibus qui patriam conservarint, adjuverint, auxerint, certum esse in cœlo ac definitum locum, ubi be- ati Ævo sempiterno fruantur." But we are

Τετο μέν γε ός τῶς νομίζεση, ως οἱ τὰ ϭ϶ βιώσανες διδαιμονήσετη, οἱ δὲ ἄδικοι παμπαν αἰωνίοις κακοῖς σωνέζεν) κὰ τέτε δὲ τῦ δόγμαι@ μήθὶ ἔτοι, μήτ ἀλλ.Θ ἀιθεώπων μηθείς πόθε ἐπικῆ,

οποτείνοθες. Apud Orig. cont. Celf. lib. viii.

<sup>1</sup> οι δ΄ ἀν δίξωτιν ανιάτως έχειν, Διο τα μεγέθη τ άμαρηματων, η ειροτυλίας τολλάς η μεγαλας, η Φόνες αδίατες η σεξανόμες τόλο λες έξειρασμύοι, η άλλα όσα τυίχανει ύνα τοιαυτα, τέτες ή ή πορσήνετα μοῖρα είπει εἰς τ Τάριαρο, εθεν έποιε εκδαίνετιν. Phædo, p. 113. — "Αλλοι ή όνιαν") οι τέτες ὁρῶιες Δρο τὰς άμαριίας τὰ μέγιτα κ δουπρόταια η Φοδερώταια πάθη σάσχονια; τ κεί χρόνον. Gorgias, p. 525.

D Somn. Scip. cap. 3.

to know, that the Ancients distinguished the souls of men into three species: the HUMAN, the HEROIC, and the DEMONIC. The two last, when they lest the body, were indeed, believed to enjoy eternal happiness, for their public services on earth; not in Elysium, but in beaven. Where they became a kind of demi-gods. But all, of the sirst, which included the great body of mankind, were understood to have their designation in purgatory, Tartarus, or Elysum: The sirst and last of which abodes were temporary; and the second only eternal. Now those who had greatly served their country, in the manner Tully there mentions, were supposed to have souls of the beroic or demonic kind o.

2. But secondly, in every sense of a future state as a moral defignation, rewards and punishments necessarily imply each other: So that where one is wanting, the other cannot possibly subsist. This is too evident to need a proof; or not to be seen by the ancient philosophers: Lactantius thus argues with them, on common principles. "If God be " not provoked at impious and wicked men, neither is " he pleased with the good and just. For contrary " objects must either excite contrary affections, or "no affections at all. So that he who loves good "men, must at the same time hate ill; and he who 44 hates not ill men, cannot love the good: Because " both to love good men proceedeth from an ab-"horrence of ill; and to hate ill men from a ten-"derness to the good p." And so concludes, with

p Si Deus non irascitur impiis & injustis, nec pios utique justosque diligit: In rebus enim diversis, aut in utramque

<sup>•</sup> Eusebius speaking of the political Gods of Egypt, supports what is here delivered of those heroic or demonic souls, αλλως εξί ἐκ τύτων ἐπιγείως Κράθαι, φασὶν, ὑπαξξανίας ξὶ Ενκώς, διὰ δὶ σωύεσιν κὴ κοινην ἀνθεωπων σύερισίαν τεθελχύτας ἡ ΑΘΑΝΑΣΙΑΣ.— Præp. Evang, 1. iii. c. 3.

those he argues against, that the denying God's attribute of anger, which removes the punishments of a future state, overturns the state itself. "Sive "igitur gratiam Deo, sive iram, sive utrumque detraxeris, religionem tolli necesse est."

In this (as we fay) he does not at all mifrepresent the common conclusions of philosophy. Plutarch delivering its fentiments on this head, expressy makes the denial of future misery, to infer the denial of a future state. "Death is the final period of our being. "But Superstition fays, no. She stretches out life " beyond life itself. Her fears extend further than " our existence. She had joined to the idea of death, "that other inconsistent idea of eternal life in mi-" fery. For when all things come to an end, then, "in the opinion of Superstition, they begin to be " endless. Then, I can't tell what dark and dismal "gates of Tartarus fly open: then, rivers of fire, "with all the fountains of Styx are broken up, &c. "-Thus doth curfed Superstition oppose the "voice of God, which hath declared death to be "the end of fuffering q." Death, fays he, is the end of suffering, therefore the end of being. Only with the vsegor weotegor of the rhetoricians he has here. in the most rhetorical of all his discourses, put the conclusion before the premisses.

3. But lastly, we shall shew (under the next head, to which we are going) that the Philosophers did not consider the attribute of grace and favour, (which they allowed) to be a passion or affection; though

partem moveri necesse est, aut in neutram. Itaque qui bonos diligit, & malos odit; & qui malos non odit, nec bonos diligit: Quia & diligere bonos, ex odio malorum venit; & malos odisse, ex bonorum caritate descendit.

<sup>9</sup> άδου τινές ἀνείγον Παι στύλαι βαθείαι, εξ σοθαμεί συγός όμοῦ 🤞 συγός ὁπυξξωγές ἀναπετάνου Παι—"υτως ή κακεδαίμων δεισιδαιμούα κζ θεῷ τὸ μὴ παθεῖὶ ἐκπέφευγει.—Do Superft.

they confidered anger (which they allowed not) under that idea.

II. As the foregoing objection would infinuate that the univerfal Principle of God's not being angry, doth not prove enough; fo, the next pretends, that it proves too much: For, fecondly, it may be objected, that this principle destroys God's providence here, as well as a future state of rewards and punishments hereafter; which providence several of the theistical Philosophers, we know, did believe.

This will require confideration.

Lactantius fays: "All the philosophers agree "about the anger; but concerning the grace or "favour they are of different opinions r." taking it for granted, that they confidered the grace or favour, which they held, as well as the anger, which they denied, to be a passion or affection, he thus argues as above: and adds, "Therefore "the error of those who take away both grace "and anger is the most consistents." But methinks, the absurdity of the error here imputed, should have taught Lactantius, that the Philofophers, who had rejected anger because it was an human passion, could never give their God another human passion: For though they sometimes dogmatised like lunatics, they never fyllogized like idiots; though their principles were often unnatural, their conclusions were rarely illogical. He should therefore have seen, that those, who held the gratia or benevolence of the divine Nature, confidered it not as a passion or affection, but as an efflux from its effence t; on which they built their notion of a general providence. So that when he fays,

\* See the following quotation from Sallust the philosopher.

r Omnes philosophi de ira consentiunt, de gratia discrepant.

<sup>•</sup> Ergo constantion est error illorum, qui & iram simul, & gratiam tollunt.

concerning the grace or favour, they are of different opinions, we are to understand no more, than that some of them held a Providence, and others denied it.

Let us fee then what kind of providence the thei-Rical Philosophers believed. The PERIPATETICS and Stores went pretty much together in this matter. It is commonly imputed to Aristotle, that he held no providence to be extended lower than the moon: But this is a calumny that Chalcidias raifed of him. What Aristotle meant by the words, which gave a handle to it, was that a particular providence did not extend itself to individuals: For being a fatalist in natural things, and at the same time maintaining free-will in man, he thought, if Providence were extended to individuals, it would either impose a necessity on human actions, or, as employed on mere contingencies, be it felf frequently defeated; which would look like impotency: And not feeing any way to reconcile freewill and prescience, he cut the knot, and denied that providence extended to individuals. Zeno's notion of Providence, over the human kind, feems to have been yet more general t; and, indeed, better supported, for he denied free-will in man: Which was the only difference in this matter between him and Aristotle.

Here we have a Providence very confiftent with a dubelief of a future state of rewards and punishments; nay, almost destructive of it.

But the Pythagoreans and Platonists will not be put off fo: They held a particular providence, extending itself to Individuals: A provi-

t Cotta, in Cicero, explaining the dostrine of the Stoics, fays, Non curat Deus] fingulos homines. Non mirum, ne civitates quidem. Non eas? Ne nationes quidem et gentes. N. D. iii. 39. Vol. II.

dence, which according to ancient notions, couldnot be administred without the affections of love and anger. Here then lies the difficulty: These sects removed all passions from the Godhead, especially anger; and, on that account, rejected a future state of rewards and punishments; while yet they believed a Providence, which was administred by the exercife of those very passions. For the true solution of this difficulty, we must have recourse to a prevailing principle of Paganism, often before hinted at, for the clearing up many obscurities in Antiquity: I mean, that of local tutelar deities. Pythagoras and Plato were deep in the Theology which taught, that the several regions of the earth were delivered over, by the Creator of the Universe, to the vicegerency and government of inferior Gods. This opinion was originally Egyptian; on whose authority these two Philosophers received it; though it had been long the popular belief all over the pagan world. Hence, we see the writings of the Pythagoreans and Platonists fo full of the DOCTRINE OF Demons: A doctrine, which even characterized the theology of those Sects. Now these Demons were ever supposed to have passions and affections. On these principles and opinions the Greeks formed the name of that mixed mode, Superstition: they called it Aggidanuovia, which fignifies the fear of Demons or inferior Gods. And these being supposed, by the Philosophers, to have possions; and, by the people, to be capricious in the exercise of those passions, it gave birth to all the extravagant Rites of attonement: the practice of which, as we fay, they called due-Saucria; intimating, in the very term, the reffici which gave birth to them; and by which alone, the Ancients understood a particular Providence could be administred. And here it is worthy our observation, that Chalcidias gives this as the very reafon

reason why the Peripatetics rejected a particular Providence, (he says indeed, though falsely, all Providence below the moon) namely, because they held nothing of the administration of inferior Deities. His words are these: "Aristotle holds that the "providence of God descends even to the region of the moon; but that, below that orb, things were neither governed by the decrees of God, "nor upheld by the wisdom and aid of Angels." Nor does he suppose any providential intervention of Demons." So closely united, in the opinion of this writer, whom Fabricius calls gnarismus veteris philosophie.", was the doctrine of a particular Providence, and the doctrine of Demons and subaltern Deities.

But when now the Soul is disengaged from the body, it is no longer, in their opinion, under the government of Demons; nor confequently subject to the effects of the Demonic passions. And what becomes of it then, we shall fee hereafter. A remarkable passage in Apuleius, will explain and justify the folution here given: "God (feith this au-" thor) cannot undergo any temporary exercise of "his power or goodnéss: And therefore cannot be "affected with indignation or anger; cannot be "depressed with grief, or elated with joy. But, " being free from all the passions of the mind, he " neither forrows nor exults; nor makes any in-" stantaneous resolution to act, or to forbear acting. "Every thing of this kind fuits only the middle " nature of the Demons: For they are placed be-"tween Gods and Men; as well in the frame and " composition of their minds, as in the situation

v Aristoteles Dei providentiam usque ad lunæ rgionem progredi censet; infra vero neque providentiæ scitis regi, nec engelorum ope consultisque sustentari: nec vero Dæmonum prospicientiam putat intervenire. Com. in Platonis Timeam.

w Bib. Lat. 1. iii. c. 7.

"of their abodes, having immortality in common with the former, and affections in common with the latter. For they are fubject, like us, to be every way irritated and appealed; fo as to be inflamed by anger, melted by compassion, allured by gifts, softened by prayers, exasperated by neglect, and soothed again by observance. In a word, to be affected by every thing that can make impression on the human mind x." Plutarch says the same thing, but with this remarkable addition, that it was the very doctrine of Plato and Pythagoras.

On the whole then it appears, that the Principle of God's not being angry, which subverted the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments, did not at all affect a particular Providence here; and that the grace or favour which some of

\*---Debet Deus nullam perpeti vel operis vel amoris temporalem perfanctionem; & ideirco nec indignatione nec ira contingi, nullo angore contrahi, nullà alacritate gestire: fed ab omnibus passiombus animi liber, nec dolere unquam, nec aliquando lætari, nec aliquid repentinum velle vel nolle. Sed & hæc cuncta, ut id genus cætera, Dæmonum mediocritati congruunt. Sunt enim inter homines & deos, ut loco regionis, ita ingenio mentis intersiti, habentes communem cum superis immortalitatem, cum inferis passionem. Nam perinde ut nos, pati possunt omnia animorum placamenta vel incitamenta; ut & ira incitentur, & misericordia slectantur, & donis invitentur, & precibus leniantur, & contumeliis exasperentur, & honoribus mulceantur, aliisque omnibus, ad similem nobis modum varientur. De Deo Secratis.

ν Εέκτιον ει οί τὰ τῶν τ Τυζῶνα η "Οπιριν η Ἰσιν ἱροιφήρια, μήτε θῶν σαθήμαθα, μήτε ἀιθραπων, ἀλλὰ ΔΑΙΜΟΝΩΝ ΜΕ-ΓΑΛΩΝ εξ νομιζούες, ὡς η ΠΛΑΤΩΝ, η ΠΥΘΑΓΟΡΑΥ, η Ενναροτης, η Χρύσιππων, ἐπόρθροι τὰς ΠΑΛΑΙ ΘΕΟΛΟ-ΓΟΥΣ, ἐξωμβεστέρας μὰ ἀιξωπων γεξοιέναι λέγμσι, η συλλή τῆ ἄισμει τ ψυσιν ὑπερφέρηθας ἡμῶν, το ἀὲ θείον ἀικ ἀμιγὲς, ἐβὲ ἀκρῶν ἔχοιλας, ἀλλὰ η ψυχλς ζύσει η συμαθων αἰδήσει ἀνσυιειληχὸς, ἡδοιὴν ἀιχορβρην η σύνον η ὅσα ταύταις ἐξηροβρην ταῖς με αλλαὶς σάθη, τὰς μὰ μαλλοι, της δὲ ἦτίον ἀιπλαρατίει γικοίαι το ἀν δικοβρην τὰς και ἀν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς δὲν ἀν ἀν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς τὰς δὲν ἀν ἀν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς και ἀν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς δὲν ἀν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς και ἀν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς δὲν ἀν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς δὲν ἀν ἀν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς τὰς δὲν ἀν ἀν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς τὰς δὲν ἀν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς δὲν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς δεν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς δικοβρην τὰς τὰς δεν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς δεν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς δεν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς δεν δικοβρην τὰς δικοβρην τὰς τὰς δεν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς δεν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς δεν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς δεν δικοβρην τὰς δεν δικοβρην τὰς δεν δικοβρην τὰς δεν δικοβρην τὰς τὰς δεν δικοβρην τὰ

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them left unto the Deity was no passion or assection, like the anger, which they took away; but only a simple benevolence, which, in the construction of the Universe, was directed to the best; but did not interfere to prevent disorders in particular Systems. A benevolence too, that went not from the will, but the essence of the supreme Being 2.

SALLUST, the Philosopher, writing of the Gods and the World, proposes in his fourteenth chapter, to speak to this question, how the immutable Gods may be faid to be angry and appealed ? In the first place, he fays, that God hath no human passions; he neither rejoices, is angry, nor appealed with gifts ": So far is certainly agreeable to truth. But how then? Why, the Gods are eternally beneficent (that is, as Seneca fays below, caufa Diis benefaciendi NATURA) and beneficent only, and never hurtful c. Thus having avoided one extreme, he falls into another; and supposeth it to be blind Nature, and not Will, which determines God's beneficence. The inference from which is, that the rewards and punishments of Heavenare the natural and necessary effects of actions; not positive, arbitrary consequences, or the designation of Will: And fo our Philosopher maintains. For now the difficulty being, that if nature be the cau'e of the beneficence of the Godhead, how can Providence bestow good on the virtuous man, and evil on the wicked? Our Sophist resolves it thus: "While

z So Seneca informs us: Quæ causa est Diis bene faciendi? NATURA. Errat, siquis putat illos nocere veile: Non possunt. Nec accipere injuriam queunt, nec facere; lædere etenim lædique conjunctum est. Summa illa ac pulcherrima omnium natura, quos periculo exemit, nec periculosos quidem secit. Ep.95.

<sup>4</sup> τιώς οί Θεοί μη μεταβαλλημένοι, όργ ζέσται η θεζαπέσεσθαι λέγον-

<sup>6</sup> Οὐ Χαίτει Θεὸς—ἐβὲ ὀεγίζεται—ἐβὲ δύρχις θεξαπιύεται. 6 Ἐκείνοι μὲν ἀγαθοί τε είσιν ΑΕΙ, κὰ ὼφελώ. ο μόνου βλάπίκοι δὲ ἀβὲ φτοιε.

" we are good, we are joined by fimilitude of na-"ture to the Gods; and when evil, separated, by "diffimilitude. While we practice virtue, we are " in union with them; but defection to vice makes "them our enemies: not because they are angry at " us, but because our crimes interpose between us " and their divine irradiations, and leave us a prey " to the avenging Demons. - So that to fay, God " is turned away from the wicked is the same as to 66 fay, THE SUN IS HID TROM A BLIND MANd." An apt comparison: and very expressive of the principle of this philosophy; which supposes the influence of the Deity, to be like that of the Sun, physical and necessary; and, consequently all reward and punishment not the arral, but the natural, issue of things. A Platonic notion, entirely subversive of the proper doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments, as conceived everywhere by the people, and taught by the Christian Religion. Which holds, that they arise out of God's Goodness and Tuffice, not by way of emanation, as light from the Sun, but as the defignation of Will; which disparts freely, though not fancifully or capriciously; as, with equal malignity and folly, my reasoning in this place hath been represented.

On the whole, then, we find, that the Pagans in taking away buman paffions from God, left him nothing but that kind of natural excellence, which went not from his will, but his effence only; and confequently, was defititute of merality: this was one extreme. The primitive Fathers, (as Lactantius)

ψεψη [εσθαε.]

ψε με με κακες η το Ευρικου του Αρεικου Αρεικο

understanding clearly that the Platonic notion of God overturned a future judgment, and not finding the medium, which their masters in science, the Philosophers, had missed, supposed (as as we have seen) that God had buman passions: and this was the other extreme. And whence, I would ask, did both these extremes arise, but from neither party's being able to distinguish between buman passions and the divine attributes of GOODNESS AND JUSTICE? the true medium between buman passions on the one hand, and a blind excellence of nature, on the other.

II. We proceed now to the OTHER CAUSE, which kept the philosophers from believing a future state of rewards and punishments. As the first was a an erroneous notion concerning the nature of God, so this was a much more absurd one concerning the nature of the Soul. For, as our epic Poet sings,

"Much of the Soul they talk, but all awrye."

There are but two possible ways of conceiving of the *foul*: we must hold it to be, either a QUALITY, or a SUBSTANCE.

1. Those Ancients who believed it to be only a *Quality*, as Epicurus, Dicæarchus, Aristoxenus, Asclepiades, and Galen, come not into the account; it being impossible that these should not believe its total annihilation upon death.

2. But the generality of the Philosophers held it to be a Subfance; and ALL who so held, were unanimous that it was a discerped part of a whole; and that this Whole was God; into whom it was again to be resolved.

But concerning this Whole they differed.

Some held that there was only one Substance in Nature; others held two.

THEY who maintained the one Universal Sub-

<sup>•</sup> Par. Reg. Book iv. \$313. O 4 stance,

ftance, or TO 'EN, in the ftricteft fense, were Atheists; and altogether in the sentiments of the modern Spinozists; whose master apparently catched this epidemical contagion of human reason from Antiquity.

The others, who believed there were two general Substances in nature, God and Matter, were taught to conclude, by their way of interpreting the famous maxim of ex nibilo nibil fit, that they were both eternal. These were their Theists; though approaching sometimes, on the one hand, to what is called Spinozism; sometimes, on the other, to Menicheism.

For they, who held two Substances, were again

Subdivided.

Some of them, as the Cyrenaics, the Cynics, and the Stoics, held both these Substances to be material; which gave an opening to Spinozism: Others, as the Pythagoreans, the Platonists, and Peripatetics, only one; which gave the like open-

ing to Manicheism.

Lastly the maintainers of the *immeteriality* of the divine Substance, were likewise divided into two parties; the first of which held but *one* person in the Godhead; the other, *two* or *three*. So that as the *former* believed the Soul to be part of the supreme God; the *latter* believed it to be part only of the second or third *Hypestasis*.

As they multiplied the Persons of the Godhead, for they multiplied the subsistence of the Soul; some giving two, and some more liberally, three to every

f Origen speaking of the Greek philosophers, says, "They plainly suppose the whole world to be God. The Stoics make it the first God. As to the followers of Plato, some make it the second, and some the third God. Σαφῶς δὲ τὸν ὁλον κόσμον λέγατιν είναι θεόν. Στωικοί μὲν τὸν Φεωτον. Ο΄ δι ἀπὸ Γιλάτων τὸν δεντερον τοὺς δὲ ἀντῶν τὸν τς ίτον. Cont. Cels. 1. v.

man. But it is to be observed, that they esteemed only one of these to be part of God; the others were only elementary matter, or mere qualities.

These things are but just hinted at, as what is sufficient to our purpose: A full explanation of them, tho' both curious and useful, would take up too much

room, and lead us too far from our subject.

Now, however They, who held the Soul to be a real substance, differed thus in circumstantials, yet in this confequence of its fubitantiality, that it was part of God, discerped from him, and would be resclved again into him, they all, we fay, agreed. For those who held but one substance, could not but efteem the foul a part of it; and those who held two, confidered those two as conjoined, and composing an Universe; just as the soul and body composed a man. Of which Universe, God was the soul; and matter, the body. Hence they concluded, that as the human body was refolved into its parent Matter, fo the foul was refolved into its parent Spirit.

Agreeably to what is here explained, Cicero delivers the common fentiments of his Greek masters on this head: "A natura Deorum, ut doctiffimis " fapientissimisque placuit, Haustos animos & "LIBATOS habemus?." And again: "Humanus " autem animus DECERPTUS EX MENTE DIVINA, " cum alio nullo nisi cum ipso Deo (si hoc sas est

" dictu) comparari potest h."

\* De Divin. 1. i. c. 49.

h Instead by accident. The words, si boc fas est dietu, had been omitted by accident. But Answerers saw a mystery in in this omission, which could be nothing but the author's confciousness that they made against him. They are now inferted to shew that they make entirely for him, and that Cicero used the word decerptus in the literal sense; for, if only in a figurative, he had no occasion to soften it with a falva reverentia.

And, in another place, he fays,—" animos ho"minum quadam ex parte extrinfecus effe tractos
"& hauftos, ex qua intelligimus effe extra divinum
"animum humanus unde ducaturi." He afterwards gives the whole fystem, from Pacuvianus, more at large,

Quicquid est hoc, omnia animat, format, alit, auget, creat,

Sepelit, recipitque in fese omnia, omniumque idem est Pater;

Indidemque, eademque oriuntur de integro, atque eodem occidunt k."

And St. Austin did not think them injured in this representation. In his excellent work of the City of God, he thus exposes the absurdity of that general principle.—" Quid infelicius credi potest, quam "Dei partem vapulare, cum puer vapulat? Jam "vero partes Dei fieri lascivas, iniquas, impias, "atque omnino damnabiles quis ferre potest, nisi "qui prorsus infanit!"

Now, left the reader should suspect that these kind of phrases, such as, the soul's being part of God; discerped from bim; of his Nature; which perpetually occur in the writings of the Ancients, are only highly sigurative expressions, and not measurable by the severe standard of metaphysical propriety; he is desired to take notice of one consequence drawn from this principle, and universally held by Antiquity, which was this, That the soul was eternal, à parte ante, as well as, a parte post; which the Latins well expressed by the word sempiternus."

De Divin. 1. i. c. 32.

k De Divin. 1. i. c. 57.

<sup>1</sup> L. iv. c. 13.

m It properly fignifies, what hath neither beginning nor end; though frequently used in the improper sense of having no end. And indeed, we may observe in most of the Latin writers, an

For this we shall produce an authority above exception: "It is a thing very well known (fays "the accurate Cudworth) that, according to the " fense of Philosophers, these two things were al-" ways included together, in that one opinion of the "Soul's immortality, namely, its pre-existence, as " well as its post-existence. Neither was there ever "any of the Ancients, before Christianity, that " held the Soul's future permanency after death, "who did not likewise affert its pre-existence; "they clearly perceiving that if it was once granted, "that the Soul was generated, it could never be " proved but that it might be also corrupted: And st therefore the affertors of the Soul's immortality "commonly began here; first to prove it's pre-" existence, &c "." What this learned man is quoted for, is the fast: And for that we may fafely take his word: As to the reason given, that, we fee, is vifionary; invented, perhaps, to hide the enormity of the Principle it came from. The true reason was its being a natural consequence of the opinion, that the Soul was part of God. This Tully plainly intimates, where, after having quoted the verses from Pacuvianus given above, he subjoins, 44 Quid est igitur, cur domus sit omnium una, ea-" que communis, cumque animi hominum semper

unphilosophic licence in the use of mixed modes by substituting one for another: The providing against the ill effects of this abuse, to which, these sort of words are chiefly liable, gave the ancient Roman lawyers great trouble; as appears from what one of them observes, "Jurisconsultorum summus circa ver- borum proprietatem labor est." The abuse arose in a good measure, from their not being early broken and inured to abstract reasoning: It is certain at least, that the Greeks, who were eminent for speculation, are infinitely more exact in their use of mixed modes: not but something must be allowed for the superior abundance of the Greek language.

"fuerint futurique fint, cur hi, quid ex quoque eve"niat, & quid quamque rem fignificet, perspicere
"non possint?" And again as plainly, "Animo"ram nulla in terris origo inveniri potest:—His
"enim in naturis nihil inest, quod vim memoriæ,
"mentis, cogitationis habeat; quod & præterita
"teneat, & futura provideat, & complecti possit
"præsentia; quæ sola divina sunt. Nec invenie"tur unquam, unde ad hominem venire possint,
"nisi a Deo.—Ita quicquid est illud, quod sentit,
"quod sapit, quod vult, quod viget, cæleste &
"divinum est; ob eamque rem æternum sit
"necesse est".

It hath been observed, in the last section, that the samous argument of Plato, explained, and strongly recommended by Cicero, supposes the Soul to have been from eternity, because it is a self-existent substance; which is plainly supposing it to have been eternal a parte ante, because it is a part of God.

Here then is a confequence, univerfally acknowledged, which will not allow the principle, from whence it proceeded, to be understood in any other sense than strictly metaphysical. Let us consider it a little. We are told they held the soul to be eternal: If eternal, it must be either independent on God, or part of his substance. Independent it could not be, for there can be but one independent of the same kind of substance: The ancients, indeed, thought it no absurdity to say, that God and Matter were both self-existent, but they allowed no third; therefore they must needs conclude that it was part of God.

And in that fense, indeed, they called it (as we see in the last section) independent, when, on account of it's

<sup>·</sup> Fraym. de consolatione.

original, they gave it the attribute of the Deity; and, with that, joined the others of ungenerated, and felf-existent.

But when the Ancients are faid to hold the preand post-existence of the Soul, and therefore to attribute a proper eternity to it, we must not suppose that they understood it to be eternal in its distinct and peculiar existence; but that it was discerped from the substance of God, in time; and would, in time, be rejoined, and refolved into it again. This they explained by a bottle filled with feawater, which swimming awhile upon the ocean, does, on the bottle's breaking, flow in again, and mingle with the common mass. They only differed about the time of this reunion and refolution: The greater part holding it to be at death P; but the Pythagoreans, not till after many transmigrations. The Platonists went between these two opinions; and rejoined pure and unpolluted fouls immediately to the universal spirit: but those which had contracted much defilement, were fent into a fuccession of other bodies, to purge and purify them, before they returned to their parent Substance q. And these were the two sorts of the NATURAL METEMPSYCHOSIS, which we have obferved above, to have been really held by those two Schools of philosophy.

That we have given a fair representation of the ancient belief in this matter, we appeal to the

P See the Critical inquiry into the opinions and tradice of ancient

philosophers, p. 125, et seq. 2d Edition.

Nec enim omnibus idem illi sapientes arbitrati sunt cundem cursum in codum patere. Nam vitiis & sceleribus contaminatos deprimi in tenebras, atque in cœno jacere docuerunt: cassos autem, puros, integros, incorruptos, bonis etiam studiis atque artibus expolitos, levi quodam ac facili lapsu ad Deos, id est, ad naturam sui similem pervolare. Fragm. de consolatione.

learned Gassendi: "Interim tamen vix ulli fuere " (quæ humanæ mentis caligo, atque imbecillitas " est) qui non inciderint in errorem illum de REFU-" SIONE IN ANIMAM MUNDI. Nimirum, ficut ex-" istimârunt singulorum animas particulas esse ani-" mæ mundanæ, quarum quælibet suo corpore, " ut aqua vase, includeretur; ita & reputarunt " unamquamque animam, corpore dissoluto, quasi "diffracto vase, effluere, ac animæ mundi, e qua " deducta fuerit, iterum uniri; nisi quod plerum-" que ob contractas in impuro corpore fordeis, vi-"tiorumque maculas, non prius uniantur, quàm " fensim omneis sordeis exuerint, & aliæ seriùs, " aliæ ocyùs repurgatæ, atque immunes ab omni "labe evaferint"." A great authority; and the greater, for that it proceeded from the plain view of the fact only; Gaffendi appearing not to have been fensible of the consequence here deduced from it, namely, that none of the ancient philosophers could believe a future state of rewards and punishments. Otherwise, we may be sure, he had not failed to urge that confequence, in his apology for Epicurus; whose monstrous errors he all along strives to palliate, by confronting them with others as bad, amongst the Theistic Sects of philosophy.

Thus we fee, that this very opinion of the Soul's eternity, which hath made modern writers conclude that the ancient Sages believed a future state of reward and punishment, was in truth the very reason

why they believed it not.

The primitive christian writers were more quickfighted: They plainly saw, this principle was destructive of such future state, and therefore opposed it with all their power. Thus Arnobius (not indeed attending to the double dostrine of the an-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>e</sup> Animadu, in decimum librum Diogenis Laertii, p. 550.

cient philosophy) accuses Plato of contradiction, for holding this principle, and yet, at the same time, preaching up a future state of reward and

punishment s.

But it must be consessed, some of the Fathers. as was their custom, ran into the opposite extreme; and held the Soul to be naturally mortal; and, to support this, maintained its materiality: Just as in the case before, to support human passions in the Godhead, they taught he had a buman form. Tatian, Tertullian, and Arnobius fell into this foolish error. Others indeed, as Justin Martyr, and Irenæus, went more foberly to work; affirming only, against the notion of its eternity, that it was created by God, and depended continually upon him for its duration. In the heat of dispute, indeed, some unwary words may now and then drop from the soberest of them, which seem to savour the do-Etrine of the Soul's materiality: But it is but candid to correct them by the general tenor of their fentiments.

This was the true original of every thing looking that way, in the writings of the Fathers: which

s Quid? Plato idem vester in eo volumine, quod de animæ immortalitate composuit, non Acherontem, non Stygem, non Cocytum fluvios, & Pyriphlegetontem nominat, in quibus animas affeverat volvi, mergi, exuri? Et homo prudentiæ non pravæ, & examinis judiciique perpensi, rem inenodabilem suscipit, ut cum animas dicat immortales, perpetuas, & corporali foliditate privatas; puniri eas dicat tamen, & doloris afficiat fensu. Quis autem hominum non vidit, quod fit immortale, quod simplex, nullum posse dolorem admittere; quod autem fentiat dolorem, immortalitatem habere non posse? Et qui poterit territari formidinis alicujus horrore, cui fuerit perfuafum, tam se esse immortalem quam ipsum Deum primum; nec ab eo judicari quidquam de se posse, cum sit una immortalitas in utroque, nec in alterius altera conditionis possit aqualitate vexari? Adver. Gentes, 1. ii. p. 52 --- 64. Ed. Lug. Bat. 1651. Quarto.

had Mr. Dodwell confidered, he had never written fo weak a book as his *epiftolary difcourse* against the Soul's immortality, from the *judgment of the Fathers*; whose opinions he hath egregiously mistaken, or at least, misrepresented.

Having now feen that the Philosophers in general, held the Soul to be part of God, and resolvable into him; lest any doubt should remain, I shall shew in the next place, that it was believed particularly by the samous philosophic quaternion.

Cicero, in the person of Velleius, the Epicurean, accuses Pythagoras, for holding that the human foul was difcerped from the substance of God, or the universal nature. " Nam Pythagoras, qui cen-64 fuit animum esse per naturam rerum omnem in-" tentum & commeantem, ex quo nostri animi car-" perentur, non vidit distractione humanorum ani-" morum discerpi & lacerari Deum t." Here, Velleius does not (as hath been represented) exaggerate or strain matters, to serve his purpose. Pythagoras held the old maxim ex nihilo nihil fit, and, therefore, must needs hold the soul to be taken from some soreign and external fubstance. But he allowed only two substances, God and Matter; therefore, as he taught the Soul was immaterial, he could not possibly conceive it to be any other than a part of God. So that Velleius's confequence naturally follows, that as Pythagoras held the foul to be a Substance not a Quality, he must suppose it to be torn and discerped from the Substance of God. To the same purpose, Sextus Empiricus: - Pythagoras and Empedocles, and the whole company of the Italic school, bold that our Souls are not only of the same nature with one another, and with the Gods, but likewife with the irrational fouls of brutes: For that there is one spirit

<sup>2</sup> Mat. Deor. l. i. c. 11.

that pervades the universe, and serves it for a sul, which unites us and them together. Lastly, Lacrtius tells us, that Pythagoras supposed the soul to be different from the life; and immortal; for that the Substance, from which it was discerped, was immortal.

If we go to the ancient christian writers, we shall find they charge the Pythagoreans with these very principles. Jerom says, —" Juxta Pythagorico-" rum dogmata, qui hominem exæquant Deo, et " de ejus dicunt esse substantia"." Austin speaks to the same purpose—" Cedant et illi quos quidem " puduit dicere Deum corpus esse, verumtamen " ejusdem naturæ, cujus ille est, animos nostros esse " putaverunt; ita non eos movet tanta mutabilitas" animæ, quam Dei naturæ tribuere nessa est "."

PLATO, without any foftening, frequently calls the foul, God; and part of God, NOTN AEI ©EON. Plutarch fays, Pythageras and Plato held the foul to be immortal: For that launching out into the Soul of the universe, it returns to its parent and

ν Οι με έν τος εί του Πυθαγόρας η του Εμπεδοκλέα, η της 'Ιταλώ': πλήθω, φασί μή μένον ήμεν περις αλλήλες κỳ περίς τες θεες είναι τια κοινανίαν, αλλά κỳ περίς τα αλοία τ ζωων εν ηδ υπαρχαι ωνεύμα, τὸ 21g) σαντὸς τε κόσμε διῆκον ψυχῆς τρόπον, τὸ η είεν nang webs exerto, lib. ix. Adv. Phylic. § 127. That Pythagoras and Plato held the bunan foul to be of the same nature with God, has been feen at large; that they supposed the brutal foul to be of the same nature with the human, which is the other particular here afferted by Sextus Empiricus, appears from the testimony of Plutarch. - Πυθαγ εας, ιιλάτων, λυγικάς μέν είναι κό των άλιγιν ζίων και υμένεν, τὰς ψυχὰς, οὐ μὴν λογικῶς ἐεργάσας Αθορ รทิง อิบรมอุนรเฉง รอง รองนนรอง.—Plac. Phil. l. v. c. 20. For the Ancients taught that this univerfal Spirit, the Anima mundi, or whatfoever name they gave it, acted with different degrees or activity and force, according to the different nature and disposition of the Matter with which the feveral parts of this Spirit were inveited.

Διαθέρων τε ψυχήν, ζωής ἀθά αθόν τε εξ αθόλην, επαθήπερ κ το ἀφ ἐ ἀπέ πας ακ. αθ καθόλ εξα. Vit. Phil. 1. viii. § 28.

<sup>\*</sup> Ctefiphon, adver. Pelag. Y De civ. Dei, viii. 5. Vol. II. P cri-

original 2. Tertullian charges this opinion home upon him. "Primo guidem oblivionis capacem canimam non cedam, quia tantam illi concessit "divinitatem, ut Deo adaquetur a." Arnobius does no less, where he apostrophises the Platonists in this manner: "Ipfe denique animus, qui immor-" talis à vobis & Deus effe narratur, cur in ægris " æger sit, in infantibus stolidus, in senectute de-" festus? Delira, & fatua, & insana b!" Eusebius expressly fays, that Plato held the foul to be ungenerated, and to be derived by way of emanation from the first cause; as being unwilling to allow that it could be made out of nothing. Which necessarily implies, that, according to Plato's do-Etrine, God was the material cause of the soul, or that the foul was part of his fubstance °.

There is indeed a passage in Stobæus, which hath been understood by some, to contradict what it here delivered as the fentiments of Plato. It is where Speufippus, the nephew and follower of

Τυθαγίεας, Πλάτων, άφθαεῖον εξί τ ψεχήν εξίνουν γου νές της τ τε σανίο ψιχήν, άναχωρεῖν σεός τὸ όμογμές. De Plac. Phil. 1. iv. c. 7.

a De anima, c. xxiv.

b Adv. Gentes, 1. ii. p. 47. The latter part of the sentence is commonly read thus; -Cur in agris ager sit, in infantibus folidus, in senestute desessus, delira, & satua, & insana? The Critics think something is here wanting before the three last words. But it appears to me only to have been wrong pointed; there should be a note of interrogation instead of a comma at defessus? --- Delira, & fatua, & insona, making a sentence of itself, by means of narratis understood. Hermias in his Irrif. Gent. Phil. expresses himself, on the same occasion, pretty much in the same manner: ταυτα έν τι χή καλεί ; ως μεν εμοί δοκεί, τεξατείαι, η άνοιαν, η μανίαν, η τάσιν.

ο Ο δέγε Πλατων, άσωμάτες μέν κ. νοητώς βσίας, τως λογικώς Φύσεις διμοίως Εδομαίοις υβικησι, διαπίπια δε τ άκολοιθίας σερότη μέν, αγεννηνους είναι Φάσκων άυτας ώσεις εξ σάσαν ψιχίι έπειτα εξ λποςξοίας της το μη διτΦι άντὰς γιγοιείαι δίδια. Βιελεται. Prap. Evang. 1. viii. c. 15.

Plate, fays, that the MIND was neither the same with the one, nor the good; but had a peculiar nature of its own 4. Our Stanley supposes him to fpeak here of the buman mind: And then, indeed, the contradiction is evident. But that learned man feems to have been mistaken, and missed by his author, Stobæus; who has misplaced this placit, and put it into a chapter with feveral others, which relate to the human mind. I conceive it to be certain that Speufippus was here speaking of a different thing; namely, of the nature of the third hypostasis in the Platonic Trinity; the NOΥΣ, or λογω, fo intitled by his uncle; which he would, by the words in question, personally distinguish from the TO 'EN, the ONE, the first person; and from the TATAGON, the good, the fecond in that Trinity.

ARISTOTLE thought of the Soul like the rest, as we learn from a paffage quoted by Cudworth f out of his Nichomachean ethics; where having fpoken of the fenfitive foul, and declared it to be mortal, he goes on in this manner: It remains that the mind or intellect, and that alone (pre-existing)

enter from without, and be only DIVINE g.

But then he distinguishes again concerning this Mind or intellect, and makes it two-fold; agent and Patient: The former of which, he concludes to be immortal, and the latter corruptible. The agent intellect is only immertal and eternal, but the passive is corruptible n. Cudworth thinks this a very doubtful and obscure passage; and imagines Aristotle was led to write thus unintelligibly, by his

d Σπερειπη- το νέν έτε τῷ ἐκὶ, ἐτε τῷ ἀγωθῷ τὰ αὐτὸν, ἰδιοφιῆ 8. Ecci Phys. 1. i. c. 1.

c Hist. of Phil. Part v. Art. Speusippus, c. 2.

f Intell. System, p. 55.

ב אנישון על של הוא אונים אי

h Tero person สียัสหลใจกาญ สำคิจกา, อ กิริ ซาลย์ที่โหลดรายร Guaflés.

doctrine of forms and qualities; which confounds corporeal, with incorporeal substances: But had that excellent person reflected on the general doctrine of the TO 'EN, he would have feen, the paffage was plain and eafy; and that Aristotle, from the common principle of the human foul's being part of the Divine Substance, draws a conclusion against a future state of separate existence; which, though (as it now appears) all the philosophers embraced, yet all were not fo forward to avow. The obvious meaning of the words then is this: The agent Intelligent (Tays he) is only immortal and eternal, but the passive, corruptible, i. e. The particular fenfacions of the foul (the paffive intelligent) will ceafe after death; and the substance of it (the agent intel-Ligent) will be refolved into the Soul of the universe. For it was Aristotle's opinion, who compared the foul to a rafa tabula, that human fenfations and reflections were paffions: These therefore are what he finely calls, the paffive intelligent; which, he fays, thall cease, or is corruptible. What he meant by the agent intelligent, we learn from his commentators; who interpret it to fignify, as Cudworth here acknowledges, the DIVINE INTELLECT; which gloss Aristotle himself fully justifies, in calling it OEION, divine. But what need many words? The Learned well know, that the intelietius agens of Aristotle was the very same with the anima mundi of Plato and Pythagoras.

Thus, this feeming extravagance in dividing the human mind into agent and patient, appears very plain and accurate: But the not having this common key to the ancient Metaphyfics, hath kept the followers of Aristotle long at variance amongst themselves, whether their master did, or did not believe the soul to be immortal. The anonymous water of the life of Pythagoras, extracted by Photius.

Photius, fays, that Plato and Aristotle with one consent agree that the soul is immortal: Though some, not fathoming the profound mind of Aristotle, Suppose that he held the feul to be mortal i; that is, mistaking the paffive intelligent (by which Aristotle meant the prefent partial fensations) for the soul itself, or the agent intelligent. Nay, this way of talking of the passive intelligent, made some, as Nemesius, even imagine that he held the foul to be only a quality k.

As to the Stores, Stobæus tells us that Cleanthes held, every thing was made out of one, and would be again resolved into one 1. But let Seneca speak for them all. And why should you not believe femething divine to be in him, who is indeed PART OF THE GOD-HEAD? That WHOLE, in which we are contained, is one, and that one is god; we being his companions and members m.

Epicretus fays, the fouls of men have the nearest relation to God, as being parts, or fragments of him, discerped and torn from his Substance".

ί "Οτι Πλάτων, Φησί, κ, "Αριτοθέλης, αθάναθον δμοίως λέγκοι "τ ปักหาใน หลัง สเจอร อโร หั "Agrerก็ไมษร หลัง จบัน อันด็ฉยับ อ.โอร, Sinala τομίζεσεν αυτον λέγειν Phot. Bibl. Cod. 259.

κ Οί  $\tilde{\rho}$  άλλοι  $\tilde{\tau}$  Ιυχίωι Ε΄ λέγυσιν θοιών, 'Αρισθέλης δε η ναρχ $\tilde{\rho}$ ν ἀνέσιον. De Nat. Hom.

Eclog. Phys. c. 20.

m Quid est autem, cur non existimes in eo divini aliquid existere qui Dei pars est? Totum hoc, quo continemur, & unum

ett, & Deus: & socii ejus sumus, & membra. Et. 92.

" Σωναφείς τῷ θεῷ, ἄτε αὐεθ μόςια θεαι κζ δποσκάτμοθα. This passage amongst others, equally strong, is quoted by the tearned Dr. Moor, in his Immortality of the foul, book iii. chap. 16. And one cannot but finile at the good Doctor's refaction on a general principle which he could by no means approve. The expressions, (lays he) make the foul of man a ray or team of the joul of the world, or of God. But we are to take notice, THEY ARE BUT METAPHORICAL PHRASES. So, the Socioian, to texts of scripture full as strong for the doctrine of the redemption. And so, indeed, men of all Parties, when they would remove what stands in their way; They first change things into tigures; and then, figures into nothing.

Lastly.

Lastly, Marcus Antoninus, as a confolation against the fear of death, says, To die is not only according to the course of nature, but of great use to it. We should consider how closely man is united to the godbead, and in what part of him that union resides; and what will be the condition of that part or portion when it is resolved into the anima mundi.

He is here indeed a little objective; but we have his own comment upon it in another place. "You have hitherto existed as a part (or have had a particular existence) you will hereafter be absorbed and lost in the substance which produced you: or rather, you will be assumed into the Divine nature, or the spermatic Reasons p." And again, Every body will be soon lost and buried in the universal Substance. Every soul will be soon absorbed and sunk in the Universal Nature q."

After all this, one cannot fufficiently admire how

9 Πων τὸ ένολον έναφανίζεται τάχις α τῆ τῶν όλων ἐσία, κὴ πῶν αἰτίεν εἰς τὸν τῶν όλῶν λόγον τάχις α ἀιαλαμβάκεται. L. vii. c. 10.

C udworth

<sup>•</sup> Τέτο μήτοι ε μόνον ζύσενς έςγον έςιν, αλλά η συμφέρον c. 12. Here the doctrine of the role is hinted at; but writing only to adepts, he is a little obscure. The editors have made a very confused comment and translation: The common reading of the latter part of the passage is, and branchis to 2 oxin 1 70 τε αθυσε τετο μόνιος which is certainly corrupt. Gataker very accurately transposed the words thus: Ka. za: yr 121, and for Agreein, read durings Mer. Castubon, more happily, May xer'as. They have the true reading between them: But not being aware that the doctrine of the refujion was here alluded to, they could not fettle the text with any certainty. The last word M. MON can fignify nothing else but a discerped particle from the Soul of the world. Epictetus uses it in that fense, in the passage above; and it seems to be the technical term for it.

P ΕΝΥΠΕΣΉΕΣ ΩΣ ΜΕΡΟΣ' ΕΝΑΦΑΝΙΣΘΗΣΗ ΤΩ ΓΕΝΝΗ-ΣΑΝΤΙ' μάλλον δὶ ἀναληφίνση εἰς τὸν λόγον αὐτε τὸν συεςματικὸν καῖὰ μέια ξολήτ. 1. iv. c. 14

Cudworth came to fay, -" All those Pagan philo-" fophers who afferted the incorporeity of fouls, must of necessity, in like manner, suppose them not to " have been made out of pre-existing matter, but by "God, out of nothing. Plutarch being only here to " be excepted, by reason of a certain odd hypothesis " which he had, that was peculiarly his own, of a "third principle besides God and matter, an evil "Demon, self-existent; who therefore seems to " have supposed all particular human souls to have " been made neither out of nothing, nor yet out of "matter or body pre-existing, but out of a certain " strange commixture of the substance of the evil "Soul, and God blended together; upon which "account he does affirm fouls to be not fo much ໍ ຮຸ້ຄໂດຍ, as μέρ @ ອະຊົ, not so much the work of God, " as part of hims."

1. He thinks those Philosophers, who held the incorporeity of the foul must of necessity believe it. to be made by God out of nothing. Why fo? Because they could not possibly suppose it to be made our of pre-existing matter. But is there no other preexisting Substance in being, besides matter? Yes the divine. Out of this, then, it might have been made. And from this, in fact, the Philosophers did suppose it to be made. The learned author, therefore, has concluded too hastily.

r Intell. System, p. 741.

The words of Plutarch are these: "The soul is not so much. "the work and production of God, as a part of him-nor is it " made by him, but from him, and out of him." 'H of toxnεκ έργον έτι τε θευ μόνον άλλα κζ μές 🖫 – εδ΄ ΥΠ΄ αὐτοῦ, άλλ' ΑΠ΄ αυτου, κ ΕΞ αυτου γέγονεν. Plat. Quaft. On which I will only make this observation: If Plutarch called the Soul a part of God, only in a figurative or popular fense, what hindered him from confidering it as the mere work and production of God? Nay how could it have been confidered otherwife? for figurative expreffion relates not to the nature of ideas, but only to the mode of conveying wem.

2. He thinks Plutarch was fingle, in conceiving the foul to be a part, rather than a work of God; and that he was led into that error by the Manichean principle: But how this principle should lead any one into fuch an error is utterly inconceivable. It is true, indeed, that he who already believes the foul to be use or, or usenov Dex, a part or particle of the Divinity, if at the same time he hold two principles, will naturally suppose the soul to take a part from each. And so indeed did Plutarch: And in this only, differed from the rest of the Philosophers: who, as to the general tenet of use , and not selov Des, that the foul was rather a part, than a work of God, were all of the same opinion with him.

Such was the general doctrine on this point, before the coming of Christ: But then, those Philosophers, who held out against the Faith, after fome time, new modelled both their Philosophy and Religion; making their Philosophy more religious, and their Religion more philosophical: Of which I have given feveral occasional instances, in the course of this work. So, amongst the many improvements of Paganism, the softening this do-Etrine was one; The modern Platonists confining the notion of the foul's being part of the divine Substance, to those of brutes t. Every irrational power (fays Porphyry) is resolved into the life of the whole .

t Λύε) εκάς η δωίαμις ΑΛΟΓΟΣ είς το όλην ζωήν τε σωνδός. But the elder Platonists talked another language; if Virgil may be allowed to know what they faid:

Esse apibus partem divinæ mentis, & hauslus Ætherios dixere. Deum namque ire per omnes.

v But they were not content to speak a language different from their Master. They would, sometimes, make him speak theirs. So Hierocles tells us, Plato faid, that "When God made the " visible world, he had no occasion for pre-existent matter to "work upon. His will was sufficient to bring all creatures in"to being." "Αξχείν βι αυτω εί; υπός αστι των όταν τὸ δικείον Εύλημα. De fato & prov. ap. Phot. But where Plato faid this we are yet to learn. And, And, it is remarkable, that then, and not till then, the Philosophers began *really* to believe a future state of rewards and punishments. But the wifer of

Terrasque, trachusque moris, cœlumque profundum.
Hinc pecudes, armenta, viros, genus omne ferarum,
Quemque sibi tenues nascentem arcestere vitas.
Scilicet huc reddi deinde, ac resolu sa referri
Omnia:
Georg. iv. y 220.

But now what temptation could the later Platonists have to make this alteration in favour of paganism, if their master and his first followers called the human soul, a part of God only in a loose metaphorical sense? for such a sense could have reslected

no difgrace upon their fystems.

But a passage of Plutarch will shew us the whole change and alteration in this fystem in one view; where speaking of the opinions of the philosophers, he says, "PYTHAGORAS and PLATO " held the foul to be immortal; for that launching out into the " foul of the universe, it returns to it's parent and original. The " Stoics fay, that on it's leaving the body the more infirm (that " is, the foul of the ignorant) fuffers the lot of the body: " But the more vigorous (that is, the foul of the wife) endures " to the conflagration. Democritus and Epicurus fay, the foul "is mortal and perifhes with the body: PYTHAGORAS and " PLATO, that the reasonable soul is immortal (for that the " foul is not God but the workmanship of the eternal God) and " the irrational, mortal." Πυθαγόςας, Πλάτων, άφδαζίου είναι την ψυχήν έξιθσαν γαζε είς το τε σαιίος ψυχήν αναχωειν σεός το όμογενές. Οι Στωϊκοί έξιθσαν των συμάτων υποφέςεσθαι τ΄ μεν ασθενες ές αν έμα τοῦς συγκείμασι γειέσθαι (ταυτην δὲ είναι τῶν ἀπαιδεύτωι) την 🕏 λογυροτεραν, όια έτι αθίτες σοφές, κή μέγρι δ έκπυρώσεως. Δημύκοιτω, Επίμερω βθαρτήν, τῷ σώματι σύνΜαρθειζομένην. Πυθαγέξας κζ Πλατων το μεν λογικον, αφθαετον (κ) γάς τ ψυχήν, ε θεών, άλλ έργον τε αιδιε θεε υπάρχει) το δε άλογον, φθαρίον. Περί των Αρεσ. τοις QIA BIGA. d'. x. C.

There is something very observable in this passage. He gives the opinions of the several Philosophers concerning the Soul. He begins with Pythagoras and Plato; goes on to the Stoics, Denocritus and Epicurus; and then returns back to Pythagoras and Placo again. This seems to be irregular enough; but this is not the worst. His account of the Pythagorean and Platonic doctrine concerning the soul, with which he fets out, contradicts that with which he concludes. For, the launching out into the foll of the universe, which is his first account, implies, and is the language of those who say, that the soul was part of the sulfance of God: whereas his second account expressly declares

them

them had no fooner laid down the Doctrine of the TO' 'EN than the Heretics, as the Gnostics, Manicheans, and Priscillians, took it up. These delivered it to the Arabians, from whom the Atheists of these ages have received it.

Such then being the general notion concerning the nature of the Soul, there could be no room for the belief of a future state of rewards and punishments: and how much the Ancients understood the difbelief of the one to be the consequence of holding the other, we have a remarkable inftance in STRABO. This excellent writer speaking of the

that the foul was not God, that is, part of God, but only his workman(hip. Let me observe too, that what he says further, in this fecond account, of the rational foul's being immortal, and the irrational, mortal, contradicts what he in another place of the same tract, quoted above, tells us, was the doctrine of Pythagoras and Plato concerning the foul; namely, that the human and brutal, the rational and irrational, were of the fame nature, Πυθαγόρας, Πλάτων λογικώς μεν είναι κζ των αλόγωνζωων καλεμενών τὰς ψυχάς του μην λογικώς ένεςγούσας Εδά την δυσκρασίαν των σαματων. How is all this to be accounted for? Very eafily. This tract of the placits of the philosophers was an extract from the author's common-place: in which, doubtlefs, were large collections from the Pythagoreans and Platonists, both before and after Christ. It is plain then, that in the passage in question he begins with those before; and ends with those after. And it was the language of those after, to call the human soul, not (like their predecessors) a part of God, but his workmanship: so Plotinus, who came still later, tells us, that the foul is from God, and yet has a different existence: It was in their language to call the brutal foul, mortal: and so afterwards Porphyry, we find, says, every irrational power is refolved into the life of the whole: for, this resolution or Augus was qualified with the title of 200 agoia, or φθάεμα indifferently, as they were disposed to hide or to reveal it's real nature. While they held all fouls subject to this resolution, they would, of course, keep it amongst their SECRETS, and call it immortality. When they began to make a diffinction, and only subjected the irrational soul to this resolution, as in the passage of Porphyry, then they would call it mortality, as in this passage of Plutarch: a passage though hitherto esteemed an indigested heap of absurdity and contradiction, is now, we presume, reasonably well explained and reconciled to itself. Mosaic

Mosaic Religion, thus expresseth himself: For be [Moses] affirmed and taught that the Egyptians and Libyans conceived amiss, in representing the Divinity under the form of beofis and cattle: and that the Greeks were not less mistaken, who pistured him in a human shape; for God was that only one, which contains all mankind, the earth, and sca, which we call Heaven, THE WORLD AND THE NATURE OF ALL THINGS . This, indeed, is the rankest spinozism: But very unjustly charged on the Jewish Lawgiver, who hath delivered, in his divine writings, fuch an idea of the Deity, that had he drawn it on fet purpose to oppose to that abfurd opinion, he could not have done it more effectually. What then, you will fay, could induce fo ingenuous a writer to give this false representation of an author, whose Laws he was no stranger to? The folution of the difficulty (which Toland has written a fenfeless differtation w to aggravate and envenom) feems to be this: Strabo well knew, that all who held the TO 'EN, necessarily denied a future state of reward and punishment; and finding in the Law of Moses so extraordinary a circumstance as the omission of a future state in the national Religion, he concluded backwards, that the reason could be no other than the author's belief of the TO 'EN: For these two ideas were inseparably connected in the imagination of the Greeks.

But now, though the notion is shewn to be so malignant, as, more or less, to have infected all the ancient Greek philosophy; yet no one, I hope, will suspect, that any thing so absurd and unphilo-

ν Έρη ο διακίω μ) ἐδίδασκεν, ως οὐκ ὀςθῶς φρονθσιν οἱ Αἰγύπὶιοι θηρίοις εἰκάζινὶς, μ) βοσκήμασι τὸ θείον θο οἱ Λίθυες ὀυκ
εῖ δὲ ἐδ΄ οἱ Ἑλληνες, ανθρωπομόςψες τυπθιλες εἰη γὰρ ἐν τθτο μόνον
θεὸς τὸ σεθείχον ἡμᾶς ἄπανίας, μὸ γῶν μὸ θαλατίαι, ὁ καλθιμμι
εἰς ὰν κὸ κόσμον κὸ τὴν τῶν ὅναν φύσιν. Geog. lib. xvi.

fophical will need a formal confutation. Mr. Bayle thinks it even more irrational than the plastic atoms of Epicurus: The atomic system is not, by a great deal, so absurd as spinozism x: And judges it cannot stand against the demonstrations of Newton: In my opinion the spinozists would find themselves embarraffed to some purpose, if one obliged them to admit the demonstrations of Mr. Newton y. In this he judged right; and we have lately feen a treatife, intituled, An enquiry into the nature of the human foul, &c. fo well reasoned on the principles of that philosophy, as totally to dispel the impious phantasm of spinozism. He who would have just and precife notions of God and the foul, may read that book; one of the best pursued of the kind, in my humble opinion, that the prefent times, greatly advanced in true philosophy, have produced.

But it will be asked from whence the Greeks had this strange opinion; for we know they were not ATTOAIAAKTOI. It will be said, perhaps, from Egypt; where they had their learning; and the books which go under the name of TRISMEGISTUS, and pretend to contain a body of the ancient Fgyptian wisdom, being very full and explicit in savour of the TO EN, have very much confirmed this opinion: And though that imposture hath been sufficiently exposed, yet on pretence, that the writers of those books took the substance of them from the ancient Egyptian physiology, they preserve, I don't know how, a certain authority amongst the learned, by no means due unto them.

\* Le Système des atomes n'est pas à beaucoup près aussi abfurde que le spinozism. Crit. Dist. Arrièle Democrite.

V Je croi que les spinozistes se trouveroient bien embarassés, si on les sorçoit d'admettre les demonstrations de Mr. Newton. Soid. Ar. Leucippe. Rem. (G) à la fin.

<sup>-</sup> I. Cufaubos cont. Bar. Exerc. 1. Nº 18.

However, I shall venture to maintain, that the

notion was purely GCECIAN.

1. For first, it is a refined, remote, and far fetched, though imaginary, conclusion from true and simple principles. But the ancient Barbaric philotophy, as we are informed by the Greeks, consisted only of detached placits or tenets, delivered down from tradition; without any thing like a pursued hypothesis, or speculation in a system a. Now refinement and subtilty are the consequence only of these inventions.

But of all the Barbarians, this humour would be least seen in the Egyptians; whose Sages were not fedentary scholastic Sophists, like the Grecian; but employed and busied in the public affairs of Religion and Government. Men of fuch characters, we may be fure, would buth even the most folid sciences no farther than the uses of life. In fact, they did not, as appears by a fingular inftance, in the case of Pythagoras. Jamblichus tells us, that be spent two and twenty years in Egypt, studying astronomy and geometry b: And yet after his return to Samos, he himself discovered the famous 47th prop. of the first book of Euclid. This, though a very useful, is yet a very fimable theorem; and not being reached by the Egyptian geometry, shews they had not advanced far in fuch speculations. So again, in astronomy: Thales is faid to be the first who predicted an eclipse of the fun; nor did the Egyptians, nor any other Barbarians, pretend to dispute that honour

Δυοδη หลู สำหาสม ล้าๆ หลู τὴ. Δίθυπθεν ἐν τοῖς ἀδυτοις διεξέλισιν ἀςρο-

νόμω κỳ γεομίζεμε .-- Vit. Pytic. C. 4.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> 'Αλλ' ἐδὶ οἱ παλαίταλοι τῶν φιλοσόφων ἐπὶ τὸ ἀμφισδηῖεῖν κὸ ἀπορεῖν ἐφέροδο—οἱ μὲν γὰρ κεωτεροι τῶν πας' Ἑλλησι φιλοσόφων ὑπὸ φιλιμίως κειῆ; τε κὸ ἀτελθε, ἐλεῖκλικῶς, ἄμα κὸ ἐρετικῶς, εἰς τὴν ἄχιησον ἐξάγολαι φλοαρίαν ἔμπαλιν δὲ ἡ βαρδαρ@ φιλοσοφία, την πάταν ἔρν ἐκδαλλετα.—Ciem. Alex. Strom. 1. viii. in prin.

with him. To this it may be faid, that the Egyptians certainly taught Pythagoras the true confitution of the Solar fystem in general: and, what is more extraordinary, the doctrine of Comets in particular, and of their revolving like the other planets round the sun '; which is esteemed a modern discovery; at least it needed the greatest effort of Newton's genius to render probable; and still the periods of their revolutions are only guessed at. We grant they taught him this: but it is as true, that they taught it not scientifically, but dogmatically, and as they received it from tradition; of which one certain argument is, its being so soon lost after the Greeks began to hypothessed.

It will be asked then, in what consisted this boasted Wisdom of Egypt; which we have so much extolled throughout this work; and for which li-

c It is recorded by Aristotle and Plutarch: and thus expressed by Amm. Marcellinus.—" Stellas quasdam, ceteris similes, quarum ortus, obitusque, quibus sint temporibus profituti hu-

"manis mentibus ignorari." 1. xxv. c. 10.

d Fixas in supremis mundi partibus immotas persistere, & planetas his infériores circa folem revolvi, terram pariter moveri cursu annuo, diurno vero circa axem proprium, & solem ceu focum universi in omnium centro quiescere, antiquissima suit philosophantium sententia. Ab A gyptiis autem astrorum antiquissimis observationibus propagatam esse hanc sententiam verifimile est. Et etiam ab illis & a gentibus conterminis ad Græcos gentem magis philologicam quam philofophicam, philofophia omnis antiquior juxta & fanior manasse videtur. Subinde docuerunt Anaxagoras, Democritus, & alii nonnulli, terram in centro mundi immotam stare, & astra omnia in occasium, aliqua celerius, alia tardius moveri, idque in spatiis liberrimis. Namque orbes folidi possea ab Eudoxo, Calippo, Aristotele, introducti funt; declinante in dies philosophia primitus introducta, & novis Gracorum commentis paulatim pravalentibus. Quibus vinculis antiqui planetas in spatiis liberis retineri, deque cursu rectilineo perpetuo retractos, in orbem regulariter agi docuere, non constat. In hujus rei explicationem orbes folidos excogitatos fuisse opinor. Neacton, de mundi fisiemate,

berty we have fo large warrant from boly Scripture? I reply, in the science of LEGISLATION and CIVIL

POLICY: But this only by the way.

That the Egyptians did not philosophise by hypothesis and syitem, appears farther from the character of their first Greek disciples. Those early Wise men, who setched their Philosophy from Egypt, brought ithome in detached and independent placits; which was certainly as they found it. For, as the sine writer of the enquiry into the life of Homer says, there was yet no separation of wisdom; the philosopher and the divine, the legislator and the poet were all united in the same person. Nor had they yet any Sects, or succession of Schools. These were late; and therefore the Greeks could not be mistaken in their accounts of this matter.

One of the first, as well as noblest systems of Physics, is the Atomic theory, as it was revived by Des Cartes. This, without doubt, was a Greek invention; nothing being better settled, than that Democritus and Leucippus were the authors of it. But Posidonius, either out of envy or whim, would rob them of this honour, and give it to one Moschus a Phenician. Our excellent Cudworth has gone into this fancy; and made of that unknown Moschus, the celebrated Lawgiver of the Jews. But the learned Dr. Burnet hath clearly overthrown this notion, and vindicated the right of the discovery to the two Greeks c.

e "Præterea non videtur mihi sapere indolem antiquissimo"rum temporum iste modus philosophandi per hypothese &
"principiorum systemata; quem modum, ab introductis ato"mis, statim sequebantur philosophi. Hæc Græcanica sunt,
"ut par est credere, & sequioris ævi. Durasse mihi videtur
"ultra Trojana tempora philosophia traditiva, quæ ratiociniis
"& causarum explicatione non nitebatur, sed alterius generis
"& originis doctrina, primigenia & σατρ παιαδότω." Archaol.
Pòil. 1. i. c. 6.

This being the case, we may easily know what Plato meant in faying, that the Greeks improved whatever science they received from the Barbarians f. Which words Celfus feems to paraphrafe, where he fays, the Barbarians were good at inventing OPINIONS, but the Greeks only were able to PER-FECT and SUPPORT them g. And Epicurus, whose fpirit was entirely systematic as well as atheistic, finding none of these delicacies amongst the Barbarians, used to maintain that the Greeks only knew bow to philosophise h. So much was the author of the voyage of Cyrus miftaken in thinking that the Orientalists had a genius more subtile and metaphysical than the Greeksi. But he apparently formed his judgment in this matter, from the modern genius of that people, fince the time they learnt to speculate, of the Greek Philosophers; whose writings, fince the Arabian conquests, have been translated into the languages of the east.

It appears therefore, from the nature of the Barbaric philosophy, that fuch a notion as the TO'

EN could not be Egyptian.

2. But we shall shew next, that it was in fact a Greek invention; by the best argument, the discovery of the inventors.

Tully, speaking of Pherecydes Syrus, the master of Pythagoras, says, that he was the first

f Διὸ κὸ ώς ὁ Πλάτων Φησὶ, ὅ,τι ἀν κὸ τοῦς Βαςθάςων μάθνικα λάβω-ιν οἱ Έλλητες, τύτο άμεινον ἐκφέςυσι. Αποπ. de Vit. Pytib. ας. Photium, Cod. 249.

b 'Oδ' Επίμες Φ΄ έμπαλυ, υπολαμέλου μώνες φιλοσιθήσαι Ελλουας
 ฉ ฉ ฉ ฉ . Clem. Alex. Strom. l. i. p. 202, Ed. Morel. 1629.

· Volez Disc. sur la mythologie.

<sup>5</sup> Καὶ δύγναμως γε οὐκ διειδίζει ὁπὶ τῆ ἀπό βαςθάςων ἀγγῆ τῷ λόγω, ἐπαινῶν ὡς ἐκαιθς δύχεῖν δύγμαθα τθς βαςθάτες, περικίδετι δι τυτοις, ὅτι κεῖιαι κὴ βεθαιώσαδιαι τὰ ὑπό βαςθάξων δύςεθεθα ἀμώνινες εἰσὶν Ἑλλη ες. Orig. cont. Celfinn, p. 5.

who affirmed the fouls of men to be ETERNALA "Quod literis extet, Pherecydes Syrus primum "dixit animos hominum esse sempiternos; an-"tiquus fane; fuit enim meo regnante gentili. "Hanc opinionem discipulus ejus Pythagoras ma-" ximè confirmavit k." This is a very extraordinary passage. If it be taken in the common sense of the interpreters, that Pherecydes was the first, cr the first of the Greeks, who taught the IMMORTALITY of the foul, nothing can be more false or groundless. Tully himself well knew the contrary, as appears from feveral places of his works, where he reprefents the immortality of the foul, as a thing taught from the most early times of memory, and by all mankind; the author and original of it, as Plutarch affures us, being entirely unknown; which indeed might be eafily gathered, by any attentive confiderer, from the very early practice of deifying the dead. Tully therefore, who knew that Homer taught it long before; who knew that Herodotus recorded it to have been taught by the Egyptians from the most early times, must needs mean a different thing; which the exact propriety of the word sempiternus will lead us to understand. Donatus the grammarian, fays, that sempiternus properly relates to the Gods, and PERPETUUS to men; Sampiternum ad Deos, perpetuum proprie ad homines pertinet1: So that, a proper ETERNITY is attributed to the Soul; a confequence that could only fpring, and does fpring necessarily, from the principle of the Soul's being part of God. Here then Cicero hath given us a very curious piece of history; which not only fixes the doctrine of the TO' EN to Greece, but records the Inventor of it: and this is farther con-

k Tusc. Disp. 1. 1. c. 16.

I In And. Ter. Act. v. Sc. v.
Vol. II,

firmed by what he adds, that Pythagoras, the scholar of Pherecydes, took it from his mafter; and by the authority of his own name added great credit to it; fo great indeed, that, as we have feen, it foon over-spread all the Greek philosophy. And I make no question but it was Pherecydes's broaching this implety, and not hiding it fo carefully as his great Disciple did afterwards, by the double doctrine, which made him pass with the people, for an Atheift. And if the ftory of his mocking at all religious worship, which Ælian mentions, be true, it would much confirm the popular opinion.

Tatian is the only ancient writer I know of, who feems to be apprized of this intrigue; or to have any notion of Pherecydes's true character. Tatian writing to the Greeks, against their Philosophers, fays, Aristotle is the heir of Pherecydes's Doctrine; and traduces the notion of the foul's immortality ". How true this is, and how exactly Ariftotle's opinion agrees with what we have here delivered as Pherievdes's, may be feen above in the Interpretation of a passage in the Nichomachean ethics. But the flagularity of Tatian's centure hath much embarafied his commentators to know on what it was grounded.

That Pherecydes was the inventor of this notion, and not barely the original author of it to the Greeks, may not only be collected from what hath been faid above of the different genius of the Greek and Barlaric philosophy, but from what Suidas tells us of his being felf aught, and having no mafter or director of his studies P.

n Var. Hijt. 1. iv. c. 28,

n 'C อ่ะ 'Agi อาเมลุ ซซี Φερεκύδυς อื่อγμαί@ หวิทถุกเอ็น ซิ๋รโ, หู ซี่สุ ψυχη 2/g a λατην αθανασιαν. Orat. ad Gr. C. 412, See p. 211.

<sup>🗠 &#</sup>x27;...υτον δε ουκ έσχηκέναι καθηγητήν, ἀλλ' ξαυτόν ἀσκήσαι. לעאפנים לים But

But as the Greeks had two inventors of their best physical principle, Democritus and Leucippus; so had they two likewise of this their worst metaphysical. For we have as positive attestation for Thales, as we have seen before for Pherecydes. There are (says Laertius) who affirm, that Thales was the first who held the souls of men to be immortal q; ADANA-TOTE an epithet, in the philosophic ages of Greece, properly designing the immortality of the gods; as Logical Greece, signified that of men. The same objection holds here against understanding it in the common sense, as in the case of Pherecydes.

The fum then of the argument is this: Thales and Pherecydes, who, we are to observe, were cotemporaries, are faid to be the first who taught the immortality of the foult. In the common sense of this affertion, they were not the first; and known not to be fo, by those who affirmed they were the first. The fame antiquity informs us, they held the doctrine of the TO EN; which likewife commonly went by the name of the doctrine of the immortality. Nor is there any person earlier than these on record for holding that principle. We conclude therefore, that those who tell us they were the first who taught the immortality of the foul, necessarily meant that they were the first who held it to be part of the divine fubstance. This, I fay, we may conclude, altho' Plutarch had not expresly affirmed it of one of them, where he fays, that Thales was the FIRST who taught the foul to be an eternal-moving, or a self-mov-

γιητ Φ δοξαν, Τος. Φερεκύδ.

<sup>9 &</sup>quot;Ε τοι δε ης αυτόν πεωτον είπειν φασέν άθανάτες τας ψυχάς. 1. i. \$ 2.4

τ So Eufebius speaking of the political Gods of Egypt, says: "Αλλες δε ἐκτάτως . τηνειες γειές αι φασὶι, ὑπάςξανλας μὲν ΟΝΗΙΟΙΣ, Δία δε συνισιν κε κοινν ἀθερώπων ἐυιεγνεσίαν τετευχότας τῆς ΑΘΑΝΑ-ΣΙΑΣ——Prap. Ετιαng. Ι iii. c. 3.

f Suidas speaking of Pherecydes says: 'Εξηλοτύπει δε την Θά-

ing Nature: But none but God was supposed to be such a Nature: Therefore the Soul, according to Thales, was part of the divine Substance; and he, according to Plutarch, was the first who held that opinion.

3. But though the Greeks were the inventors of this impious notion; yet we may be affured, as they had their first learning from Egypt, it was some Egyptian principles which led them into it. Let

us see then what those principles were.

The Egyptians, as we are affured by the concurrent testimony of Antiquity, were amongst the the first who taught the immortality of the soul: And this not, like the Greek Sophists, for speculation; but for a support to their practical doctrine of a future state of reward and punishment: and, every thing being done in Egypt for the fake of Society, a future state was inforced to secure the general do-Etrine of a Providence. But still there would remain great difficulties concerning the origin or LVIL, which feemed to affect the moral attributes of God. And it was not enough for the purposes of Society, that there was a divine Providence, unless that Providence was understood to be perfectly good and juft. Some folution therefore was to be given; and a better could not be well found, than the notion of the MFTEMPSYCHOSIS, or transmigration of Souls; without which, in the opinion of Hierocles', the ways of Providence are not to be justified. The neceffary confequence of this doctrine was, that the Noul is elder than the Body: So having taught before, that the Soul was eternal, a parte post; and now, that it had an existence before it came into the Body, the Greeks, to give a roundness to their system, taught,

<sup>\*</sup> Θροβς Δπ.φημίο ΠΡΩΤΟΣ τὸν Φυχόν, φόσιν ΑΕΙΚΙΝΉΤΟΝ δ \* 111 CKINHTON. Plac. Phil 1. iv. c. 2.

<sup>·</sup> Lib. de Prov. apud Phot. Bib. Cod 214.

on the foundation of its pre-existence, that it was eternal too, a parte antew.

Having thus given the Soul one of the attributes of Divinity; another Egyptian doctrine foon taught them to make a perfect God almighty of it.

We have observed, that the mysteries were an Egyptian invention; and that the great fecret in them was the unity of the Godbead. This was the first of the antipola; in which, we are told, their kings, and magistrates, and a telect number of the best and wifeit were instructed. It is clear then that the doctrine was delivered in fuch a manner as was most useful to society; but the principle of the TO' "EN is as destructive to Society, as Atheism can well make it. However, having no gross conceptions of the Deity thus found, they represented him, as a spirit diffusing itself through the world, and intimately pervading all things x. And thus, the Egyptians, in a figurative and moral fense, teaching that God was all things is the Greeks drew the conclusion, but in a literal and metaphysical; that ALL THINGS WERE GOD 2; and fo ran headlong

w This is no precarious conjecture; for Suidas, after having told us that Pherecydes (whom we have flew n above to be one of the inventors of the notion of the foul's profer eternity) had no mafter, but flruck every thing out of his own thoughts; adds, that he had procured certain focret Phenician books, 'AD. Or Took and Indianal MIKON and matter that is a transfer to the suidant that the factor of the famous fragment there preferved, that these secret I henician Books contained the Egyptian wisdom and learning.

<sup>×</sup> Πας αὐτιλε τὰ σα τος κόσμε τὸ ໂνκινό ελι στινήμα. Horapolle, And Virgil, where he gives, as we have shewn, the ἀπόξερια of the Mysteries, describes the Godhead in the same manner:

Spiritus intus alit, totamque infusa per arus Mens agitat molem, & magno se corpore miscet.

Υ Δοκεί αθτοίς διχα θεκ μηδει όλως συνες αναι. Idem.

<sup>2</sup> In the writings going under the name of Orpheus, we find these words: Έν τι τα παία.

into what we now call *spinozism*. Both these propositions the Greeks afterwards father'd upon the Egyptians<sup>a</sup>; and, if we may trust the general opinion, rightly fathered them.

4. But this mistake, for a mistake it is, being chiefly supported by the books, which go under the name of Hermes Trismegistus, it will be pro-

per to fay fomething to that matter.

The most virulent enemies the Christian Faith had to encounter, on its first appearance in the world, were the Platonists and Pythagoreans. And national paganism, of which, these Sects set up for the defenders, being, by its gross absurdities, obnoxious to the most violent retortion. Their first care was to cover and secure it, by allegorizing its gods, and spiritualizing its worship. But lest the novelty of these inventions should discredit them, they endeavoured to persuade the world, that all their refinements were agreeable to the ancient mysterious wisdom of Egypt: in which point, several circumstances concurred to savour them. I. As first, that known, uncontroverted fact, that the Greek Reli-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The Afelepian dialogue translated into Latin by Apuleius, fays, omnia unius esse, et unum esse omnia. And again: Nonne hoc dixi OMNIA UNUM ESSE, ET UNUM OMNIA? Moeia જાઈ કેદઈ જાવારીય દેવા દા દે જો જાવારીય μι ρια, જાવારીય લદ્ય ઇ કેદેવું જાવારીય હૈંગ ποιών, έαυ ον ποιεί. - έαν τις έπιχειρητη το παν κή έν χρείσαι, τὸ σταν τε ένδς λύσα κατ λέτει το σταν, σταλα γαρ εν ευ δεί. Lib. xvi. of the works of Trismegist. published by Ficinus. This passage cannot be well understood without recollecting what we have observed above: That the Egyptians saying, in a sigurative and moral fense, that God was all things, the Greeks drew the conclusion in a literal and metaphysical, that all things avere God. Now the Platonist, who forged these books, being conscious, that this was a Greek conclusion, artfully endeavours, in the words above, to shew it a necessary consequence of the Egyptian premisses; which, he pretends, conveyed an imperfect representation of the Universe without it. If any man (says he) go about to separate the All from the One, he will destroy the All; for all ought to be One.

GION and PHILOSOPHY came originally from Egypt. 2. The state of the Egyptian philosophy in these times. The power of Egypt had been much shaken by the Perfians; but totally overturned by the Greeks. Under the Ptolemies, this famous Nation fuffering an entire revolution in their learning and religion, their priefts, as was natural, began to philosophise in the Grecian mode; and at the time we speak of, had for several ages, accustomed themfelves fo to do; having neglected and forgot all the old Egyptian learning: which, confidering their many subversive revolutions, will not appear at all ftrange to those who resect, that this learning was conveyed from hand to hand, partly by unfaithful tradition, and partly by uncertain Hieroglyphics. However an opinion of Ægypt's being the repository of the true old Egyptian wildom, derived too much honour to the colleges of their priefts, not for them to contrive a way to support it. 3. This they did (and it leads me to the third favourable circumstance) by forging books under the name of HERMES TRISMEGISTUS, the great hero and lawgiver of the old Egyptians. They could not have thought of a better expedient: For, in the times of the Ptolemies, the practice of forging books became general; and the art arrived to its utmost perfection. But had not the Greeks of this time been so universally infatuated with the delufion of mistaking their own Philosophy for the old Egyptian, there were marks enough to have detected the forgery. Jambilchus fays, the books that go under the name of Hernies do indeed contain the Hermaic dostrines, THOUGH THEY OF-TEN USE THE LANGUAGE OF THE PHILOSOPHERS: For they were translated out of the Egyptian tongue by MEN NOT UNACQUAINT D WITH PHILOSO-Q 4 PHYb. PHY b. Whether this writer faw the cheat, or was himself in the delusion, I cannot say; but he has owned all we want; and made the matter much worse by a bad vindication. But the credit of these forgeries, we may well imagine, had its foundation in some genuine writings of Hermes. There were in fact, fuch writings: and, what is more, fome fragments of them are yet remaining; fufficient indeed, if we wanted other proof, to convict the books that go under the name of Hermes, of imposture. For what Eusebius hath given us, from Sanchonia ATHO, concerning the cosmogony, was taken from the genuine works of Thoth or Hermes: and in them we see not the least resemblance to that genius of refinement and speculation, which makes the character of those forged writings: every thing is Tlain and simple, free of all hypothesis or metaphysical reasoning. Those inventions of the later Greeks.

Thus the Pythagoreans and Platonifls, being fupplied both with prejudices and forgeries, turned them, the best they could, against Christianity. Under these auspices, Jamblichus composed the book just before mentioned, of the Mysteries; meaning the profound and recondite doctrines of Egyptian wisdom: Which, at the bottom, is nothing else but the genuine Greek philosophy, imbrowned with the dark fanaticism of eastern cant.

But their chief strength lay in the *forgery*; And this forgery they even interpolated; the better to ferve their purpose against *christianity*.

It is pleafant enough to observe how some primitive Apologists defended themselves against the au-

Τὰ μὸν ζερήθηα, ἀς Ἑρμε ερμαϊκάς πελέχει δόξας, εἰ κὸ τῆ τῶν φιλοσόφων γλώτης πολλάκις χρήτα, μλαγέξεμπλαι γὰς ἀπό τῆς Κογυπλίας γλωτίης ὑπὶ ἀιδερῶν φιλοσοφίας οὐκ ἀπέρως ἐχοθων. De Myt.

thority of these books. One would imagine they should have detected the fraud: which, we see, was easy enough to do. Nothing like it: Instead of that, they opposed fraud to fraud: for some heretics had added whole books to this noble collection of Trismegist: In which they have made Hermes speak plainer of the mysteries of the christian Faith, than even the Jewish prophets themselves d.

· The learned Beaufobre in his biflory of manicheism very rea-

fonably supposes a gnostic to have had a hand in it.

d But this was the humour of the times: for the Grammarians, at the height of their reputation under the Ptolemies, had fhamefully neglected critical karning, which was their province, to apply themselves to forging books under the names of old authors. There is a remarkable passage in Diogenes Laertius, which is obscure enough to deserve an explanation; and will shew us how common it was to oppose forgery to forgery. He is arguing against those who gave the origin of Philofophy (which he would have to be from Greece) to the Barberians; that is, the Egyptians. Aarbareer & autes ta tor Έλλημον καθοχόωμαθα, αφ ων μη ότι γε φιλοσοφία, αλλά κ γένοανθεωπων ήςξε, Βαςθαριις σερσαπιονίες. ίδε γεν ο ζη μεν Αθηιαίνις yes on Meraios, and de Orkaios Airo κ τον μέν, Ευμιλπε σαίδα Φασί, σεινησαι δε Seofenar η σφαίζαι σχώτον Φαναι τε έξ είδς τα જાર્લીય જ્રિમાં જેવા, મુ કોર મહેળમાં વ્યવસાઇ દર્જીવા. Lib. i. §. 3. But these igrorantly apply to the Barbarians the illustrious inventions of the Greeks; from whence not only Ph.lofophy, but the very race of mankind had its beginning. Thus we know Museus was of Athens, and Linus of Thebes: The former of these, the son of Eumolpus, is said to be the first, who wrote, in worse, of the sphere, and of the generation of the gods; And taught, that ALL THINGS PROCEED FROM ONE AND WILL BE RESOLVED BACK AGAIN INTO IT. To fee the force of this reasoning, we must suppose, that they whom Laertius is here confucing, relied principally on this argument, to prove that Philosophy came originally from the Barbarians. namely, that the great principle of the Greek Philosophy, the TO' 'EN and the REFUSION, was an Egyptian notion. To this he replies, not fo: Musæus taught it originally in Athens. The dispute, we see, is pleasantly conducted: His adversaries, who supported the common, and indeed, the true opinion of philosophy's coming first from the Barbarians, by the false argument of the To B's being originally Egyptian, took this on the authority of the forged books of Trifmegift; and Laertius opposes it by as

With a fpirit not unlike that of the two law-folicitors, of whom the ftory goes, that when one of them had forged a bond, the other, instead of losing time to detect the cheat, produced evidence to prove it paid at the day.

These are my sentiments of the imposture. Cafaubon supposes the whole a forgery of some Platonic Christians. But Cudworth has fully shewn the weakness of that opinion. This latter author is sometimes inclined to give them to the pagan Platonists of those times; which seems highly improbable,

1. Because they are always mentioned, both by christian and pagan writers, as works long known, and of some considerable standing. 2. Because, had those platonists been the authors, they would not have delivered the doctrine of the sour's consubstantiality with the deity, and its resussion into him, in the gross manner in which we find it in the books of Trismegist. For, as we have shewn above by a passage from Porphyry, they had consined that irreligious notion to the souls of brutes. At other times, this great Critic seems disposed to think that they might indeed be genuine, and translated, as we see Jamblichus would have them, from old Egyptian originals: Butthis, we presume, is sufficiently overthrown by what has been said above.

In a word, these forgeries passing unsuspected on all hands, and containing the rankest spinozism f, it went currently, at that time, for an Egyptian

great a forgery, the fragments which went under the name of Musaus.

e See note (') p. 216.

f As in the following passage: Οὐκ ἤκυτας ἐντοῖς Γενικοῖς, ὅτι ἀπὸ μιᾶς ψυχῆς τῆς τῶν σανθὸς σῶσαι αὶ ψυχαί εἰσιν;—As where it is affirmed of the world, σάνθα ποιεῖν, κὴ εἰς ἐαυτὸν ἀποποιεῖν.— Of the incorruptibility of the soul; σῶς μές، τι δύναλαι φθαςῆναι τῦ ἀφθαςθα, ἢ ἀπολέσαι τι τῦ θεῦ—ὁ ιῦς τὐκ ἐς ιν ἀποθεθμημβρω τῆς ἐσικότηνω τὸ δεῦ, ἀλλ ἀσες ἡπλωμθρω καθάπερ τὸ τῦ ἡλίυ φῶς.

principle: And though, fince the revival of learning, the cheat hach been detected, yet the false notion of their original hath kept its ground.

Why I have been thus folicitous to vindicate the pure Egyptian wisdom from this opprobrium,

will be feen in its place.

And now, to fum up the general argument of this last section. These two errors in the metaphysical speculations of the philosophers, concerning the nature of GOD, and of the SOUL, were what necessarily kept them from giving credit to a doctrine, which even their own moral reasonings addressed to the people, had rendered highly probable in itself. But as we observed before, it was their ill fate to be determined rather by metaphyfical than moral argu-This is best seen by comparing the belief and conduct of Socrates with the rest. fingular, as we faid before, in confining himself to the study of morality; and as singular in believing the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments. What could be the cause of his belief but this restraint; of which his belief was a natural confequence? For having confined himfelf to morals, he had nothing to mislead him: Whereas the rest of the philosophers applying themselves, with a kind of fanaticism, to physics and metaphysies, had drawn a number of abfurd, though fubtil conclusions, which directly opposed the consequences of those moral arguments. And as it is common for parents to be fondest of their weakest and most deformed iffue, fo thefe men, as we faid, were eafier swayed by their metaphysical than moral conclusions.

Thus, as the Apostle Paul observes, professing themselves to be wise, they became fools g. Well therefore might he warn his fol-

lowers left they should be spoiled through vain philoforby h: and one of them, and he no small fool neither, is upon record for having been thus spoiled; Synesius bishop of Ptolemaïs. He went into the Church a Platonist, and a Platonist he continued when he was there, as extravagant and abfurd as any he had left behind him i. This man, forfooth, could not be brought to believe the Apostle's do-Etrine of the refurrection: and why? because he believed with Plato that the Soul was before the Body; that is, eternal, a parte ante: and the confequence of this, we have shewn, was the very thing which disposed the Platonists to reject all future state of rewards and punishments. However, he was not for shaking hands with Christianity, but would suppose some grand and prosound mystery to lie hid under the Scripture account of the RE-SURRECTION. This again was in the very spirit of Plato; who, as we are told by Celfus, concealed many fublime things of this kind, under his popular doctrine of a future state k.

But it was not peculiar to the *Platonifts* to allegorize the doctrine of the *refurrection*. It was the humour of all the *Setts* on their admission into *Christianity*!. For being, in their moral lectures

h Coloss. ii. 8.

i See a full account of this man, his principles, his feruples, and his conversion, in the critical Inquiry into the opinions

of the Philosophers, &c. c. xiv.

E See note (f) p. 158. It was just the same with the Jewish Platonists at the time when the doctrine of a future state became national amongst that people. And Philo himself seems disposed to turn the notion of Hell into an allegory, signifying an impure and finful life. See his tract De congressu qui crendae eraditionis causa.

Et ut carnis restitutio negetur, de una omnium philosophorum schola sumitur. Tertul. de prasse. Adv. Hæret. So, in another place, he makes every Heresy to have received it's seasoning in the school of Plato. Doleo bona side Platonem sactum. hæreticorum omnium. Condimentarium. De Anim. c. 23.

in their schools (in imitation of the language of the Mysteries, whose phraseology it was the fashion to use both in Schools and Courts) accustomed to call vicious habits, death; and reformation to a good life ANA STASIS or a resurrection, they were disposed to understand the resurrection of the Just in the same sense. Against these pests of the Gospelit was a that the learned apostle Paul warned his son Timothy. Shun (says he) profane and vain Babelings, for they will encrease unto more ungodiness. And their word will eat as doth a canker: of whom is Hymenæus and Philetus, who concerning the Truth have erred, saying that the Resurrection is past already; and overthrow the faith of some a.

And here I will beg leave to observe, that whenever the holy Apostles speak of, or hint at the Philosophers or Philosophy of Greece, which is not feldom, they always do it in terms of contempt or abhorrence. On this account I have not been ashamed nor afraid to shew, at large, that the reafons they had for fo doing were just and weighty. Nor have I thought myfelf at all concerned to manage the reputation of a fet of men, who, on the first appearance of Christianity, most virulently opposed it, by all the arts of sophistry and injustice: and when, by the force of its superior evidence, they were at length driven into it, were no fooner in than they began to deprave and corrupt it °. For from their profane and vain babblings, Tertullian assures us, every heresy took its birth. Ipsi illi

m Hinc illu fabulu & genealogia indeterminabiles, & quafliones infructuosu, & Sermones serpentes velut cancer: à quibus nos Apostolus resumans, nominatim philosophiam, &c. Tertul. de trase. adv. Bares.

в 2 Тім іі. 16

See the Introduction to Julian, or a discourse concerning his attempt to rebuild the Temple.

SAPIENTIÆ PROFESSORES, de quorum ingeniis omnis bæresis animatur. And, in another place he gives us their genealogy. "Ipfæ denique hæreses à " рыгозоры a fubornantur. Inde Æones & for-66 mæ, nescio quæ, & trinitas hominis apud Va-66 lentinum: PLATONICUS fuerat. Inde Marcionis 44 deus melior de tranquillitate, a Stoicis venerat; " & uti anima interire dicatur, ab Epicureis ob-" fervatur: ET UT CARNIS RESTITUTIO NEGETUR, 44 DE UNA OMNIUM PHILOSOPHORUM SCHOLA SU-" MITUR; et ubi materia cum deo æquatur, ZE-" nonts disciplina est: et ubi aliquid de igneo deo " allegatur, HERACLITUS intervenit. Eædem ma-" teriæ apud hæreticos & philosophos volutantur; "iidem retractatus implicantur. Unde malum, " & quare? & unde homo, & quomodo? & quod " proxime Valentinus proposuit, unde deus? Scilicet " & de Enthymesi, ectromate inserunt Aristote-"LEM, qui illis dialecticam instituit, artificem " ftruendi & destruendi, versipellem in sententiis " coactam, in conjecturis duram, in argumentis " operariam, contentione molestam, etiam sibi ipsi "omnia retractantem, nequid omnino tractaverit. "Hinc illæ fabulæ & genealogiæ indeterminabi-"les, & quæstiones infructuosæ & sermones " SERPENTES VELUT CANCER, a quibus nos apo-"ftolus refrænans 4, &c." One would almost imagine, from these last words, that Tertullian had foreseen that Aristotle was to be the founder of the School DIVINITY.

9 De præsc. adv. Hæret. p. 70, 71. Ed. par. 1580.

P Adv. Marc. 1. i. The author of a fragment concerning the Philosophers going under the name of Origen, fays the fame thing: ἀλλ ές το αυτοίς [Αίςεδικοις] τα δοξαζομίνα άρχην μεν έκ τῆς Ελληνων σοφίας λαβόνλα, εκ δοξμάτων φιλοσοφεμένων, η ΜΥΣΤΗ-ΡίΩΝ όπικεχειρημένων η άσορλόγων έεμβομένων.

He observes, that the Heresy, which denies the Resurrection of the Body, arose out of the whole School of Gentile philosophy. But he omits another, which we have shewn stood upon as wide a bottom; namely, that which bolds the HUMAN SOUL TO BE OF THE SAME NATURE AND SUBSTANCE WITH GOD: Espoused before his time by the Gnostics, and afterwards, as we learn by St. Austin, by the Manichæans and Priscillianists.

Why the heathen Philosophers of our times should be displeased to see their ancient brethren snewn for knaves in practice, and sools in theory, is not at all strange to conceive: but why any else should think themselves concerned in the force and sidelity of the drawing, is to me a greater mystery than any I have attempted to unveil. For a stronger proof of the necessity of the Gospel of Jesus Christ cannot, I think, be given than this, That the Sages of Greece, with whom all the wisdom of the world was supposed to be deposited, had philosophised themselves out of the most evident and useful truth with which mankind hath any concern.

Befides, what greater regard could be shewn to the authority of the Sacred Writers than to justify their censure of the Greek Philosophy; which Deists and Fanatics, though for different ends, have equally concurred to represent as a condemnation of human learning in general?

In conclusion, it is but fit we should give the

r Priscillianistæ quos in Hispania Priscillianus instituit, maxime Gnosticorum & Manichæorum dogmata permixta sectantur; quamvis et ex aliis hærenous in eas sordes, tanquam in sentinam quandam horribili confusione consluxerint. Propter occultandas autem contaminationes & turpitudines suas habent in suis dogmatibus & hæc verba, Jura, perjura, secretum prodere noli. Hi, animas dicunt ejusdem naturæ atque substantiæ cujus est Deus. Aug. De Hæressbus,

reader fome account why we have been fo long and

fo particular on this matter.

One reason was (to mention no other at present) to obviate an objection, that might possibly be urged against our proof, of the divine legation of Moses, from the omission of a future state. For if now the Deifts should say (and we know they are ready to fay any thing) that Moses did not propagate that doctrine, because he did not believe it; we have an answer ready: having shewn from fact, that the not believing a dostrine so useful to society, was esteemed no reason for the Legislator not to propagate it. I fay, having shewn it from the practice of the Philofophers: For as to the Lawgivers, that is, those who were not Philosophers professed, it appears, by what can be learnt from their history and character, that they all believed, as well as taught, a future state of rewards and punishments. And indeed how should it be otherwise? for they were free from those metaphysical whimsies, concerning God and the Soul, which had so befotted the Philosophers. And I know of nothing elfe that could hinder any man's believing it.

## SECT. V.

Put it may now perhaps be faid, "Though I have defigned well, and have obviated an objection arifing from the present question; yet Was it not imprudent to employ a circumstance for this purpose, which seems to turn to the discredit of the Christian doctrine of a future state? For what can bear harder on the REASONABLENESS of this doctrine, than that the best and wisest of Antiquity did not believe a future state of rewards and punishments?"

To this I reply,

1. That if the authority of the greek Philosophers have found weight with us in matters of religion, it is more than ever the facred writers intended they should do; as appears from the character they

have given us of them, and of their works.

2. Had I, indeed, contented myfelf with barely shewing, that the Philosophers rejected the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments, without explaining the grounds on which they went, some stender suspicion, unsavourable to the Christian doctrine, might perhaps have staggered those weak and impotent minds which cannot support themselves without the crouch of AUTHORITY. But when I have at large explained those grounds, which, of all philosophic tenets, are known to be the most absurd; and the reader hath seen these adhered to, while the best moral arguments in the world for it were overlooked and neglected, the authority of

their conclusions loses all its weight.

3. But had I done nothing of this, and had left the Philosophers in possession of their whole authority, that authority would have been found impertinent to the point in hand. The supposed force of it arises on a very foolish error. Those, who mistake Christianity for only a republication of the religion of nature, must, of course, suppose the doctrine it reaches of a future state, to be one of those which natural religion discovers. It would therefore seem a discredit to that republication, had the doctrine been undifcoverable by human reason; and some men would be apt to think it was, when the Philofophers had miffed of it. But our holy religion, (as I hope to prove in the last book) is quite another thing: and one confequence of its true nature will be seen to be this, that its doctrine of a future state is not in the number of those which natural religion teaches. The authority of the Philofophers, Vol. II.

losophers, therefore, is entirely out of the question.

4. But again, it will be found hereafter, that this fatt is fo far from weakening the doctrines of Christianity, that it is a strong argument for the

truth of that dispensation.

5. Yet as we have often feen writers deceived in their representations of Pagan Antiquity; and, while zealously busy in giving such a one as they imagined favourable to Christianity, they have been all along differring t; Lest I myself should be suspected or having fallen into this common delusion, I shall beg leave, in the last place, to shew, that it is just such a representation of Antiquity as this, I have given, which can possibly be of service to our holy rengion. Another, consequently, if what we have here given be the true, it does our religion much service.

This will best appear by considering the Two usual views men have had, and the consequent methods the hard pursued, in bringing in Pagan An-

tiquity into the scene.

THEIR defign has been, either to illustrate the REASONABLENESS, or to thew the NECESSITY of

Christianity.

If the REASONABLENESS, their way was to reprefent this Antiquity, as comprehending all the fundamental truths, concerning God and the Soul, which our holy Religion hath revealed. But as greatly as fuch a reprefentation was fupposed to serve their purpose, the Infidels, we see, have not feared to join issue with them on the allowed fest; and with much plausibility of reasoning, have endeavoured to shew, that THEREFORE Christianity was not NECESSARY: and this very advantage, TINDAL (under cover of a principle, which some modern divines seemed to have afforded him, of Christianity's being only a republication of the Religion of nature) obtained over some writers of considerable name.

If their defign was to show the necessity of Christianity, they have then taken the other course, and (perhaps out of a fense of the former mischief) run into the opposite extreme; in representing Pagan Antiquity as ignorant even of the first principles of religion, and moral duty. Nay, not only, that it knew nothing, but that nothing could be known: for that human reason was too weak to make any discoveries in these matters. Consequently, that there was never any such thing as natural Religion: and what glimmerings of knowledge men have had of this kind, were only the dying sparks of primitive tradition. Here again the Infidels turned their own artillery upon them, in order to difmount that boasted REASONABLENESS of Christianity, on which they had fo much infifted: And indeed, what room was there left to judge of it, after human reason had been represented as too weak and too blind to decide?

Thus while they were contending for the reasonableness, they destroyed the necessity; and while they urged the necessity, they risked the reasonableness of Christianity. And these insidel retortions had an almost irrestible force on the principles our Advocates seemed to go upon; namely, that Christianity was only a republication of a primitive Religion.

It appears then, that the only view of Antiquity which gives folid advantage to the christian cause, is such a one as snews natural Reason to be clear enough to perceive truth, and the necessity of its deductions when proposed; but not generally frong enough to discover it, and draw right deductions from it. Just such a view as this, I have here given of Antiquity, as far as relates to the point in question; which I presume to be the TRUE; not only in that point, but likewise with regard to the state of NATURAL RELIGION in general:

neral; where we find human Reason could penetrate very far into the effential difference of things; but wanting the true principles of religion, the Ancients neither knew the origin of obligation, nor the confequence of obedience. REVELATION has discovered those principles, and we now wonder, that fuch prodigies of parts and knowledge could commit the gross absurdities, which are to be found in their best discourses on morality. But yet this does not hinder us from falling into a greater and a worse delusion. For having of late seen several excellent fystems of Morals, delivered as the principles of natural Religion, which disclaim, or at least do not own, the aid of Reveletion, we are apt to think them, in good earnest, the discoveries of natural Reason; and so to regard the extent of its powers as an objection to the necessity of any further light. The pretence is plaufible; but fure, there must be fome mistake at bottom; and the great difference in point of excellence, between these supposed produ-Ctions of mere reason, and those real ones of the most learned Ancients, will increase our suspicion. The truth is, these modern system-makers had aids, which as they do not acknowledge, fo, I will believe, they did not perceive. These aids were the true principles of religion, delivered by Revelation: principles so early imbibed, and so clearly and evidently deduced, that they are now mistaken to be amongst our first and most innate ideas: but those

I cannot better illustrate the state and condition of the buman mind, before Revelation, than by the following instance. A summary of the Atomic PHILOSOPHY is delivered in the Theateius of Plato: vet being given without its principles, when Plato's writings, at the revival of learning, came

who have studied Antiquity, know the matter to be

far otherwife.

to be studied and commented, this summary remained absolutely unintelligible: for there had been an interruption in the fuccession of that school for many ages; and neither Marcilius Ficinus, nor Serranus could give any reasonable account of the matter. But as foon as Des Cartes had revived that philosophy, by excogitating its principles anew, the mift removed, and every one faw clearly (though Cudworth, 1 think, was the first who took notice of it) that Plato had given us a curious and exact account of that excellent phyfiology. And Des Cartes was now thought by fome, to have borrowed his original ideas from thence; though, but for the revival of the Atomic principles, that passage had still remained in obscurity. Just so it was with respect to Religion. Had not Revelation discovered the true principles of it, they had without doubt continued altogether unknown. Yet on their discovery, they appeared so consonant to human reason, that men were apt to mistake them for the production of it.

Cicero (and I quote him as a man of greatest authority) understood much better the true limits and extent of human knowledge. He owns the state of natural Reason to be just what I have here delivered it; clear enough to perceive truth, when proposed, but not, generally, strong enough to discover it. His remarkable words are these—" Nam "neque tam est acris acies in naturis hominum, a kingeniis, ut res tantas quisquam, kisi mon"stratas, possit videre: neque tanta tamen in rebus obscuritas, ut eas non penitus acri vir in"genio cernat, si modo adspexerit"."

## SECT. VI.

I Have now gone through the second general proposition, which is, That all mankind, especially the most wise and learned nations of Antiquity, have concurred in believing, and teaching, that the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments was necessary to the well-being of society. In doing this, I have presumed to enter the very Penetralia of Antiquity, and expose its most venerable secrets to open day; some parts of which having been accidentally and obscurely seen by owllight by such as Toland, Blount, and Coward, were imagined, (as is natural for objects thus seen by false Braves) to wear strange gigantic forms of terror, with which they have endeavoured to diffurb the piety of many sober Christians.

The ridiculous use these men have made of what they did not understand, may perhaps revive in the reader's mind that stale atheistical objection, that Religion is only a creature of politics, a State-engine, invented by the Legislator, to draw the knot of Civil society more close. And the rather, because tbat objection being sounded on the apparent use of Religion to Civil policy I may be supposed to have added much strength to it, by shewing in this work, in a suller manner than, perhaps, was ever done before, the extent of that utility; and the large sphere of the Legislator's agency, in the application of it.

For thus flood the case: I was to prove Moses's divine efficience, from his being ABLE to leave out of his Religion, the doctrine of a future state. This required me to shew, that this doctrine was naturally of the utmost importance to Society. But of all

the

the arguments, by which that importance may be proved, the plainest, if not the strongest, is the conduct of Lawgivers. Hence the long detail of circumstances in the *second* and *third* books.

But indeed it not only ferved to the purpose of my particular question, but, appeared to me, to be one of the least equivocal proofs of the truth of Religion in general; and to deserve, in that view only, to be carefully examined and infisted on. I considered this volume, therefore, and desire the reader would so consider it, as a whole and separate work of itself, TOPROVE THE TRUTH OF RELIGION IN GENERAL, FROM ITS INFINITE SERVICE TO HUMAN SOCIETY, though it be but the introduction to the truth of the MOSAIC.

Let us examine it: Lawgivers have unanimously concurred in propagating Religion. This could be only from a fense and experience of its utility; in which they could not be deceived: Religion therefore has a general utility. We desire no more to establish its truth.

For, TRUTH AND GENERAL UTILITY NECESSA-RILY COINCIDE; that is, Truth is productive of Utility; and Utility is indicative of Truth. That truth is preductive of utility, appears from the nature of the thing. The observing truth, is acting as things really are: he who acts as things really are, must gain his proper end; all disappointment proceeding from acting as things are net: Just as in reafoning from true or false principles, the conclusion which follows must be necessarily right or wrong. But gaining the proper end of acting is utility or happiness; disappointment of that end, hurt or misery. If then truth produce utility, the other part of the proposition, that utility indicates truth, follows necessarily. For not to follow, supposes R 4

two different kinds of general utility relative to the fame creature, one proceeding from truth, the other from falshood; which is impossible; because the natures of those utilities must then be different. that is, one of them must, at the same time, be, and not be, utility. Wherever then we find general utility, we may certainly know it for the product of truth, which it indicates. But the practice of Legislators shews us, that this utility refults from Religion. The consequence is, that Religion, or the idea of the relation between the creature and creator, is true.

However, as the unanimous concurrence of Lawgivers to support religion, hath furnished matter for this poor infidel pretence, I shall take leave to examine it to the bottom.

Our adversaries are by no means agreed amongst themselves: Some of them have denied the truth of Religion, because it was of NO UTILITY; others, because it was of so great. But commend me to the man, who, out of pure genuine spight to Religion, can employ these two contrary systems at once, without the expence even of a blush v. However the System most followed, is the political invention of religion for its use: the other being only the idle exercise of a few dealers in paradoxes.

I have begun this volume with an examination of the first of these systems; and shall now end it with a confutation of the other. For the unbeliever being driven from his first hold, by our shewing the usefulness of religion, he preposterously retires into this, in order to recover his ground.

CRITIAS of Athens, one of the thirty tyrants, and the most execrable of the thirty, is at the head of

V See Blownt's Anima Mundi, and Original of Idolatry.

this division; whose principles he delivers in the most beautiful Iambics. His words are to this purpose: "There was a time when man lived

w 5H, χεόν 6τ ην άτακί ο ανίζώπων βίθ, Καὶ θηριώδης, ἰσχύ@ν θ' ύπηρέτης. "Οτ' έθεν άθλον έτε τοῖς έολλοῖσιν ήν, Οὖτ' αὦ κόλασμα τοῖς κακοῖς ἐγίνε]ο. Κάπειτά μοι δοκέσιν άνθεωποι νόμες Θέθαι κολαςάς, ίνα Δίκη τύξανν ή Γένες βερθείε, τω δ' 'Ι Εεν δελην έχη' Εζημιώτο, δ' εί τις έξαμαβανοι. "Επειτ', επειδή ταμφανή μεν οι νόμοι Απηγον αὐτοῖς ἔε[α μη πεάρσειν βία, Λάθρα δ' ἔπραοσον, τίμικα ῦτά μοι δοκεί Πυκνός τις άλλ . κ) σοφός γνώμω άνλο Γεγονέναι, ος Ανηθοίσιο εξουρών, όπως Είη τι δείμα τοίς κακοίσι, καν λάθεα Πράσσωσιν, η λέωσιν, η Φεονωσί τι-Eประบิยะ ย้ำ รอ วิยัง ริเธทาท์รสใง \*Ως εςὶ Δαίμων ἀφθίτω θάλλων βίω, Νόω τ' ακέων, κ) βλέπων Φρονών τε, κή Προσέχων τε ταυτα, η Φυσιν θείαν Φορών (ΑΦ' &) σῶν μὲν τὸ λεχθὲν ἐν βροίοῖς ἀκθείαι Os อิรูพ์นุโรง อิริ ซฉัง เอริกง อินมท์ อริโลเ. 'Εάν τε σωὶ σιγη τι βελούης κακὸν, Τῶτ ἐχὶ λήσει τὰς θεές το γὰς Φρονείο Ένες. Τέσδε τες λόγες αυτοῖς λέγω-Διδα[μάτων ήδισον είσηγήσα]ο Ψουδεί καλύψας των αλήθειαν λέγω? Eirai d' icacus res Sies illaud, iva Μαλιςά γ' ἐκπλήξειεν αιθρώπες άγων, "Οθεν σερ έγιω τες Φόθες είναι βρότοις, Καὶ τὰς στονήσεις τῷ ταλαιπώςω βίω, Εκτης ύπερθε ωεριφοράς, ίν άς ραπα; Καθείδεν έσας, δεινά τε κθυπημαθα Βρονίης, τό,τ' ας εξωπόν Βςαιθ δέμας, Χρόνε καλόν στοίκιλμα, τέκθοι Θο σοφε Όθεν τε λαμπεὸς ἀς έεων ς είχει χορὸς. 'Ο, θ' ύγρὸς είς γην όμες@ είσπορούε αι. Τοιέσδε ωεριές ησεν ανθρώποις Φόδες. Δι' ες καλώς τε τῷ λόγῳ κατώκισε Τες δαίμονας η έν συζέπονλι χωρίω Τω ανομίαν τε τοῖς νόμοις καθέσθεσεν. Ούτω δε σεῶτον οἴομαι σεῖσαί τινα Θιηθές νομίζειν δαιμόνων είναι γρίω.

" like a favage, without government or Laws, the minister and executioner of violence; when there was neither reward annexed to virtue, nor pu-

There are many variations in the reading of this fragment; and I have every where chosen that which appeared to me the right. That Critias was the author, how much foever the critics feem inclined to favour the claim of Euripides, I make no scruple to affert. The difficulty lies here: Sextus Empiricus expresly gives it to Critias; and yet Plutarch is full more express for Euripides; names the Play it belonged to; and adds this farther circumstance, that the poet chose to broach his impiety under the character of Sifyphus, in order to keep clear of the Laws. Thus two of the most knowing writers of Antiquity are supposed irreconcileable in a mere matter of fact. Mr. Petit, who has examined the matter at large [Observ. Miscell. 1.i c.1.] declares for the authority of Plutarch. And Mr. Bayle has fully shewn the weakness of his reasoning in support of Plutarch's claim. [Crit. Dict. Art. CR1-TIAS, Rem. H.] Petit's System is to this effect, that there is an biatus in the text of Sextus: That a Copift, from whom all the existent MSS. are derived, when he came to Critias, unwarily jumped over the passage quoted from him, together with Sextus's obfervation of Euripides's being in the same sentiments, and so joined the name of Critias and the Lambics of Euripides together. But this is fuch a liberty of conjecturing, as would unfettle all the monuments of antiquity. I take the true folution of the difficulty to be this: Critias, a man, as the Ancients deliver him to us, of atheistic principles, and a fine poetic genius, composed these lambics for the private solace of his fraternity; which were not kept so close but that they got air, and came to the knowledge of Euripides: to whom the general fiream of antiquity concurs to give a very virtuous and religious character, notwithstanding the iniquitous infinuations of Plutarch to the contrary. And the Tragic Poet, being to draw the Atheist Sisyphus, artfully projected to put these Iambics into his mouth: for by this means the fentiments would be fure to be natural, as taken from real life; and the poet fafe from the danger of being called to account for them. And fupposing this to be the case, Plutarch's account becomes very reatonable; who tells us, the Poet delivered this atheistic doctrine by a dramatic character, to evade the justice of the Areopagus; but, without this, it can by no means be admitted: For, thinly to cover impiety by the mere interposition of a Drama, which was an important part in their festivals, and under the constant eye of the Magistrate, was a poor way of evading the penetration and feverity of that formidable judicature, how " nishment

" nishment attendant upon vice. Afterwards, it appears, that men invented civil Laws to be a curb to evil. From hence, Justice presided over

good a shift soever it might prove against modern penal Laws, But the giving the known verses of Critias to his Atheist, was a fafe way of keeping under cover. For all refentment must needs fall on the real author; especially when, it was seen, they were only produced for condemnation, as will now be shewn. Without doubt, the chief motive Euripides had in this contrivance, was the fatisfaction of exposing a very wicked man; in which he had no apprehensions to deter him from his adversary's power: for Critias was then a private man; the Sifythus being acted in the 91st Olymp. and the tyranny of the Thirty not beginning till the latter end of the 93. But what is above all, the genius and cast of that particular Drama wonderfully favoured his defign: for the Sifyphus was the last of a tetralogy (τεθεαλογία τεαξικών δεαμάτων) or a fatyric tragedy, in which species of poetry, a licence something resembling that of the old comedy, of branding ill citizens, was indulged; and where, the fame custom of parodying the verses of rival poets was in use. And we may be sure that Euripides, who was wont to fatyrize his fellow-writers in his ferious tragedies (as where in his Electra he ridicules the discovery in the Choephoroi of Æschylus) would be little disposed to spare them in this ludicrous kind of composition. Admitting this to be the case; it could not but be, that, for a good while after, these lambics would be quoted by fome as Critias's, whose property they were; and by others, as Euripides's, who had got the u/e, and in whose Tragedy they were found; and by both with reason. But in aftertimes, this matter was forgotten or not attended to; and then fome took them for Euripides's, exclusive of the right of Critias; and others, on the contrary: And as a Copift fancied this or that man the auhor, fo the read the text. Of this, we have a remarkable inflance in the 35th verse, where a transcriber, imagining the fragment to be the Tragic Poet's, chose to read,

"Οθεν τε λαμπρός άς ές 🕒 ς είχει μυθς 🖜.

Because this expresses the peculiar Physiology of Anaxagoras, the preceptor of Euripides; which Mr. Barnes thought a convincing proof of the fragment's being really his: whereas that reading makes a sense desective and impertinent; the true being evidently this of Grotius:

Λαμπείς απέρων πείχει χορός.

And thus, I suppose, Plutarch and Sextus may be well reconciled.

"the human race; force became a flave to right, "and punishment irremissibly pursued the trans-" greffor. But when now the laws had reftrained " an open violation of right, men fet upon contriv-"ing, how to injure others, fecretly. And then it "was, as I suppose, that some cunning politi-" CIAN, well versed in the knowledge of mankind, "counterplotted this defign, by the invention of a "Principle that would hold wicked men in awe, " even when about to fay, or think, or act ill in " private. And this was by bringing in the BE-"LIEF OF A GOD; whom, he taught to be immor-"tal, of infinite knowledge, and of a nature fu-" perlatively excellent. This God, he told them, " could hear and fee every thing faid and done by "mortals here below: nor could the first conce-" ption of the most fecret wickedness be concealed "from him, of whose nature, knowledge was the "very effence. Thus did our Politician, by in-" culcating these notions, become the author of a "doctrine wonderfully taking; while he hid truth "under the embroidered veil of fiction. But to " add terror to this impreffed reverence, the Gods, " he told them, inhabited that place, which he found " was the repository of those Mormo's, and panic "horrors, which man was fo dextrous at feigning, "to fright himfelf withal, while he adds imagina-" ry miseries to a life already over-burthened with "disafters. That place, I mean, where the swift " corufcations of enkindled meteors, accompanied "with horrid bursts of thunder, run through the " ftarry vaults of heaven; the beautiful fret-work " of that wife old Architect, TIME. Where a " focial troop of shining orbs perform their regu-" lar and benignant courfes: and from whence " refreshing showers descend to recreate the thirsty " earth. Such was the habitation he affigned for

"the Gods; a place most proper for the discharge of their function: And these the terrors he applied, to circumvent secret mischief, stifle disorcial in the seeds, give his Laws fair play, and introduce religion, so necessary to the magistrate.—
"This, in my opinion, was the TRICK, whereby mortal man was first brought to believe that there were immortal Natures."

How excellent a thing is justice, said somebody or other, on observing it to be practised in the dens of thieves and robbers? How useful, how necessary a thing is *Religion*, may we say, when it forces this consession of its power, from its two most mortal enemies, the Tyrant and the Atheist?

The account here given of Religion is, that it was a state invention: that is, that the idea of the relation between the creature and Creator was formed and contrived by politicians to keep men in awe \*: From whence the Infidel concludes it to be

VISIONARY and GROUNDLESS.

From the Magistrate's large share in the establishment of ancient national Religions, two confequences are drawn: the one by Believers; the other by Infidels. The first conclude that therefore these national Religions were of political original: and this the ancient Fathers of the Church spent much time and pains to prove. The fecond conclude, from the same fact, that therefore Religion in general, or the idea of the relation between the creature and the Creator, was a politic invention, and not founded in the nature of things. And if in confuting this, I strengthen and support the other conclusion, I suppose, that, in fo doing, I give additional strength to the cause of revelation; otherwise the Fathers were very much out. And though Infidels, indeed, in their writings, affect to dwell upon this conclusion, that Superstition was a state invention; it is not, I presume, on account of any fervice, that they imagine this can do their cause; but because it enables them to strike obliquely, under that cover, at Religion in general, when they do not care to appear without their mask. But if ever they should take it into their head to deny that there is any better proof of Superstition's being a mere politic invention than of Religion in general's being so, I I fhall

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I shall prove then, and in a very few words, that the fast or position is first, impertinent, and secondly, false. For,

I.

Were it true, as it certainly is not, that *Religion* to as invented by Statesmen, it would not therefore follow that *Religion is false*. A confequence that, I don't know how, has been wrongly taken for granted on all hands. It must be proved by one or other or these mediums, or it will not be proved at all.

I. Either because Religion was not found out as a

truth, by the use of reason.

II. Or, because it was invented only for its utility.
III. Or lastly, because the inventors did not believe it.

I. As to its not being found out as a truth by the use of reason, we are to consider, that the finding out a truth by reason, necessarily implies the exercise of that faculty, in proportion to the importance and difficulty of the truth sought for: so that where men do not use their reason, truths of the utmost certainty and highest use will remain unknown. We are not accustomed to reckon it any objection to the most useful civil truths, that divers savage nations in Africa and America, remain yet ignorant of them.

Now the objection against the truth of Religion, is founded on this pretended fact, that the Lawgiver taught it to the people from the most early times. And the Infidel System is, that man from his first appearance in the world, even to those early times

have here answered them beforehand. On the whole then, if I prove that Religion in general was not a politic invention, I enervate all the force of the Atheili's argument against Revelation, taken from the invention of Religion. For that Superstition was of human original both parties seem to be agreed in: though not all of it the invention of statesmen, as we shall see presently, when we come to shew that one species of Idolatry was in use before the institution of civil Society.

of his coming under the hands of the Civil Maoistrate, differed little from brutes in the use of his rational faculties; and that the improvement of them was gradual and flow: for which, antiquity is appealed to, in the account it gives us concerning the late invention of the arts of life. Thus, according to their own state of the case, Religion was taught mankind when the generality had not begun to cultivate their rational faculties; and, what is very remarkable, it was TAUGHT BY THOSE FEW WHO HAD.

It is true, our holy Religion gives a different account of these first men. But then its account of the origin of Religion is still more wide. And let our adverfaries prevaricate as they will, they must take both or neither. For that very thing which was only able to make the first men so enlightened, as they are represented in Scripture, was revelation; and, this allowed, the dispute is at an end.

If it should be faid, That supposing Religion to be true, it is of so much importance to mankind, that God would never suffer us to remain ignorant of it: I allow the objection: but then we are not to prescribe to the Almighty his way of bringing us to the knowledge of his Will. It is fufficient to justify his goodness, that he hath done it; and whether he chose the way of REVELATION, or Reason, or the civil magistrate, it equally manifests his wisdom.

And why it might not possibly happen to this truth, as it hath done to many others of great importance, to be first hit upon by chance, and mistaken for a mere utility, and afterwards feen and demonstrated to be what it is, I would beg leave to demand of these mighty masters of reason.

II. As to Religion's being invented only for its utility: This, though their palmary argument, is the

most unlucky that ever was employed: it proceeds on a supposed inconsistency between utility and truth. For men perceiving much of this inconfistency between private partial utility and truth, were abfurdly brought to think there might be the fame between general utility and fome truths. This it was that led the ancient Sages into fo many errors. For neither Philosopher nor Lawgiver apprehending that truth and utility coincide; the first, while he neglected utility, miffed (as we have feen) of the most momentous truths: and the other, while little folicitous about truth, missed in many inflances (as we shall see hereafter) of utility. But general utility and all truth, necessarily coincide. For truth is nothing but that relation of things, whose observance is attended with universal benefit. We may therefore as certainly conclude that general utility is always founded on truth, as that truth is always productive of general utility. Take then this concession of the Atheist for granted, that Religion is productive of public good, and the very contrary to his inference, as we have feen above, MUST follow: namely, that Religion is true.

If it should be urged, That experience maketh against this reasoning; for that it was not Religion, but Superstition, that, for the most part, procured this public utility: And superstition, both sides agree to be erroneous: To this we reply, that Superstition was so far from procuring any good in the ancient world, where it was indeed more or less mixed with all the national Religions, that the good which Religion procured, was allayed with evil, in proportion to the quantity of Superstition found therein. And the less of Superstition there was in any national Religion, the happier, cateris paribus, we always find that people; and the more there was of it, the unhappier. It could not be

otherwise, for, if we examine the case, it will appear, That all those advantages which result from the worship of a superior Being, are the consequences only of the true principles of Religion: and that the mischiefs which result from thence, are the consequences only of the false; or what we call Superstition.

The wifer Ancients, in whose times Supersti-TION had so involved it self about the trunk of Religion, and so intangled her noblest branches, in it's malignant embrace, as to poison her best qualities, deform all her comelinefs, and to usurp her very NAME, were so much struck and affected with what they faw and felt, that fome of them thought, even Atheism was to be preferred before it. Plutarch hath composed a fine rhetorical discourse in favour of this strange paradox; which hath fince given frequent occasion to much fophistical declamation. M. BAYLE hath supported Plutarch's Thefis at large, in an historical and philosophical Commentary. Yet, by neglecting, or rather confounding, a real and material DISTIN-CTION, neither the ancient nor the modern Writer hath put the reader fairly into possession of the question. By this means, both the subject and the PREDICATE of the proposition are left in that convenient state of ambiguity which is necessary to give a paradox the air and reputation of an oracle.

The ambiguity in the fubject ariseth from the word, Superstition's being so laxly employed as to admit of two senses: either as a thing adventitious to Religion, with which it is fatally apt to mix itself; Or as a corrupt species of religion. In the first sense, Superstition is of no use at all, but of infinite mischief; and worse than Atheism itself: In the second sense, of a corrupt Religion, it is of great service: For, by teaching Yol. II.

a Providence, on which mankind depends, it imposeth a necessary curb upon individuals, so as to prevent the mischiefs of mutual violence and injustice. It is likewise, indeed, of great disservice; For, by begetting wrong notions of the moral attributes of God, it hinders the progress of Virtue; or, at least, sets up a false species of it. However, in the fense of a corrupt Religion, the Reader sees, it is infinitely preferable to Atheism: As in a Drug of fovereign efficacy, the application even of that which by time or accident is become decayed or viciated, is, in desperate disorders, greatly to be preferred to the forbearance; though it may ingender bad habits in the Constitution, it preserves, which, the found and entire species would never have endangered. Now one of the leading fallacies, which runs thro' Plutarch's little Tract, keeps under the cover of this ambiguity in the SUBJECT.

The ambiguity in the PREDICATE does Falsehood as much fervice. "Superflition, they fay, is worfe than Atheism." They do not tell us, To WHOM; but leave us to conclude, that they mean, both to PARTICULARS and to society; as taking it for granted, that if worse to one, it must needs be worse to the other. But this is a mistake. And therefore, from this ambiguity arises a new fallacy, which mixes itself with the other. The degree of mischies caused by Superstition is different, as it respects its objects, individuals or societies. Superstition, as it fignifies only a CORRUPT RITE, is more hurtful to focieties than to individuals; and to both, worse than Atheism. But as it signifies a CORRUPT RELI-GION, it is less hurtful to societies than to individuals; and, to both, better than Atheism. The confounding this distinction makes the ambiguity which Bayle principally delights in. And this, by he affiftance of the other from Plutarch, supports him

in all his grofs equivocations, and imperfect eftimates: Till at length, it encourages him to pronounce, in the most general terms, that Superstition is worfe than Atheisma.

BAYLE is a great deal too diffused to come within the limits of this examination. But as Plu-TARCH led the way; and hath even dazzled BACON himfelf°, with the splendor of his discourse; I propose to examine his arguments, as they lie in order: Whereby it will appear that, besides the capital fallacies above detected, it abounds with a variety of other fophisms, poured out with a profufion which equals, and keeps pace with the torrent of his wit and eloquence.

This famous Tract is, as we have observed, a florid declamation, adorned with all the forms and colouring of Rhetoric; when the question demanded fevere reasoning, and philosophical precision. At the same time, it must be owned, that it is of a genius very different from those luxuriant, and, at the same time, barren Differtations of the Sophists. It is painted all over with bright and lively images, it sparkles with witty allusions, and strikes with amufing fimilies: And, in every decoration of spirit and genius, is equal to the finest compositions of Antiquity: Indeed, as to the folidity and exactness of the Logic, it is on a level with the meanest. His REASONING is the only part I am concerned with: and no more of this, than lies in one continucd comparison between Atheism and Superstition: For, as to his positive proofs, from sact, of the actual mischiefs of Superstition, I am willing they should be allowed all the force they pretend to.

b See his Estays; where this paradox of Plutarch is sup-

ported.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Pensées diverses ecrites à un Docteur de Sorbonne à l'occasion de la comete qui parût au mois de Decembre 1680. Et continuation des Pensses diverses, &c.

It will be proper, in the first place, to observe, That it is hard to fay, What Plutarch intended to infer from this laboured comparison between Atheism and Superstition; in which, he, all the way, gives the preference to Atheism! For though, throughout the course of the argument, he considers each, only as it affects particulars, yet, in his conclusion, he makes a general inference in favour of Atheism with regard to fociety. But, it will not follow, that. because Atheism is less hurtful to particulars, it is therefore less hurtful to Societies likewise. So that, to avoid all fophistical dealing, it was necessary these two questions should be distinguished, and considered separately.-However, let us examine his reafoning on that fide where it hath most strength, The effects of Atheism and Superstition on PARTICULARS.

He fets out in this manner-" Ignorance concerning the nature of the Gods, where it meets with a bold and refractory temper, as in a rough and Stubborn foil, produces ATHEISM; where it encounters flexible and fearful manners, as in rank and low land, there it brings forth Superstition "." This is, by no means, an exact, or even generally true account of the origine of these evils. There are various causes which incline men to Atheism, besides fool-hardiness; and, to Superstition, besides cowardice. The affectation of fingularity; the vanity of fuperior knowledge; and, what Plutarch himfelf, in another place of this very Tract, assigns as a general cause, the sense of the miseries of Superstition, have frequently inclined men to this fatal obliquity of judgment. On the other hand, ignorance of Nature; impatience to pry into futurity; the

το της σερί δεών άμαθίας η άγτοιας εύθος έξ άιχης δίχα ξιείσης, το κλη είσπες ει χωρίοις τισί σκληροῖς η άθιστυσες, ήθεσι τω άθεσι τη ό η, άστες εν ύγροῖς η άπαλοῖς, την δειστόαιμονίαν έμπεποίο πκεν. + σερί δειστό. Stoph. Ed. Svo. vol. i. p. 286.

unaccountable turns in a man's own fortune, to good or bad; and, above all, a certain reverence for things established, carry them into Superstition. And as these considerations are equally adapted to affect the hardy and the pufillanimous; fo the other as foon get possession of the fearful as of the bold. Nay, FEAR itself is often the very passion which most forcibly inclines a wicked man, who hath nothing favourable to expect from divine Justice, to persuade himself that there is none to fear. Plutarch owns as much; and fays expresly, that "the end the Atheist proposes in his opinions is to exempt himfelf from all fear of the Deity" d-Again, we find, by the Histories of all times, that Superstition seizeth, along with the weak and fearful, the most daring and determined, the most ferocious and untractable: Tyrants, Conquerors, Statesmen, and Great Generals, with all the favage tribes of uncivilized Barbarians, fubmit tamely to this galling Yoke.

But our Author's account of the births of Atheisin and Superstition was no more than was necessary to support his Thesis. He all along estimates the two evils by the miseries they bring on those who are under their dominion: These miseries arise from the passions they create: But, of all the passions, FEAR is the most tormenting: The pusillanimous mind is most subject to sear: And it is over the fearful that Superstition gains the ascendent. This, therefore, was to be laid down as a postulatum. The rest follows in order.

For now coming to his parallel, he begins with a confession—" That both errors are very bad. But as Superstition is accompanied with passion or affection, and Atheism free from all passion, Superstition must need be the greater evil; as in a broken

<sup>\* -</sup> ΤέλΦ- ἐτὶν αὐτῆτε μη νημίζειν θεθς, τὸ μη φιθείδαι. p. 287.

S 3

limb, a compound fracture is much worse than a simple. Atheism (he says) may pervert the mind, but Superstition both ulcerates and perverts. A man who believes no God hath none to sear; but he who believes God to be a capricious or vindictive Being hath a great deal to seare."—This is wittily said: but Nature talks another language. We should beware how we credit poetical similies; or even philosophical analogies; which, indeed, is but Poetry, once removed.

They both have their hopes and fears. Though the Atheift has no God to fear, yet the miferable forlorn condition of a World without a Ruler must-keep him under perpetual alarms, in the apprehen-fion of the dismal effects which Chance and Hazard may produce in the material system; either by removing the parts of it, (whose present position supports the harmony of the whole) too far from, or else by bringing them too near to, one another.

And now again, the rapidity of Plutarch's invention throws him on a Comparison, to support his reasoning, which entirely overturns it.—" He (says our author) who thinks Virtue a corporeal being is only absurd. Here we have an error without passion. But he who thinks Virtue a mere name is miserable; for his error is attended with passions."—How so? Because such a one lies under the sad reslection of having lost his ablest support. But must not a man's being deprived of the Lawgiver be as fensible a mortification, as his being deprived of the Lawgiver?

On the other fide, Though Superstition hath its . fears, it hath its hopes also; which, upon the whole,

ι Παλιν οι οιλαί τινες είναι σώμα της άξεθη, &c. p. 286.

ο "Απασα κθή δυ κείτις ψουθής, άλλως τε καν ή πεςί ταυτα μοχθηςου, τηθε κή πάθω πεόσες, μοχθηεότεςου πάν η πάθω είκευ ἀπάτη φλεγμαίνεσα είναι, &c. p. 286—7.

I think, to be more eligible than that supposed freedom of the Atheist (even as our author draws it) from all passion and affection. For though the fuperstitious man may think perversely concerning the means whereby the Deity is appealed, yet he thinks him placable; and supposeth he has the means in his own power. So that he is not under the tyranny of that pure and unmixed fear, which Plutarch reprefents in fuch a manner as if all Nature furnished out provision to the superstitious man, for food and exercise to this passion. Whereas the affection of Superstition is equal between hopes and fears: It is the natural temper of the superstitious man, which inclines him more towards one than to the other. But Plutarch had before laid it down as an axiom, "That the effential temperament of the superstitious man is fear and cowardice."

But, all this would not have been sufficient to support the weakness of his declamatory reasoning, without the assistance of two commodious sophisms, to set it off. The first however, is of a very slender fort, and hath little more in it than sound. He says "the very name shews, the essence of superstition to be Fear: For the Greek name of this moral mode dear. damporta, signifies, a sear of the gods." A Roman might with the same pretence aver, that the essence of superstition is Love: For that the Latin word hath relation to the love we bear to our children, in the desire that they should survive us; being formed upon the observation of certain religious practices deemed efficacious for procuring that happy event.

The other fophism is more material; and confists in putting the change upon us, and representing the superstitious man's God, by whom he supposes

f Superflitio. 5 — Οίομετόν τ' είναι θεθς, είναι β λυπηςθ; κζ βλαθεςθς, p. 287. S 4. the

the world to be governed, in false and foul colours as a Being, envious and burtful to mans; For it is not the good, but the evil Demon whom the superstitious man thus represents: Not the Being which he worships; but the Being which he avoids and detests. The superstitious man indeed, foolishly enough, supposeth, that the God whom he acknowledgeth to be good, is capricious, inconstant, and vindictive. But then, from that effential quality of GOODNESS, which belongs to him as God, he concludes, that this Being may be appealed by fubmiffion, and won upon by oblations and attonements. All this, Plutarch himself confesseth; and in words which directly contradict the account he here gives of the fuperstitious man's God. Superstition (fays he) agitated by many contrary passions suffereth itself to suspett that the Good itself may be evil h. Plutarch has therefore acted unfairly, and to ferve a purpose, in thrusting in the superstitious man's evil Demon, in the place of his God. This conduct will bear the harder upon his ingenuity as he held the doctrine of the TWO PRINCIPLES: and, therefore, can hardly be supposed to have changed the object inadvertently, or without defign.

Having made the fuperstitious man's God, a Devil, he hath, consistently enough, represented the superstitious man's condition to be the very state of the damned; "That his pains have no remission; that he carries Hell in his bosom, and finds the Furies in his dreams." The terms of the original are very elegant: But as they plainly allude to the spews

h 'H ή δεισιδαιμονία πολυπάθεια κακον το άγαθον ύποιοθεκα' φο-Εθνται τες θεες κ. καδαφούγεσιν έπλ τες θεες. p. 291.

<sup>&#</sup>x27; — Ποπες εν εσεβών χώςω, τῷ ὑπνω τῶν δεισιδαιμόνων, εἰδωλα Φεικώλη κὰ τεςάτια Φαςμακων, κὰ ποινάς τινας εγείςυσα κὰ τεςοβσας τὰν αὐλίαν ψυχην εκ τῶν ὑπνων εκδιώκει τοῖς διείςοις, ματιζομένω κὰ κολαζομένων αὐτην ὑφ' αὐτῆς, ὡς ὑφ' ετίςυ, κὰ δεινὰ περςάγμαλα κὰ αλλόκελα λαμβάνυσαν.— τ. 288.

of the Mysteries, I think the author should have been so fair to recollect, that there was an Elysium as well as Tartarus in those Shews: And that both being alike the sictions of Superstition, the superstitious man might as well dream of one as of the other. His natural temperament and the redundancy of a particular humour would determine the colour of the Scene. The Atheist therefore, who, he says, enjoys the benefit of repose, might have his sleep disturbed by the cries of the damned as well as the superstitious man, whom he represents to be kept, by this passion, in perpetual alarms; because the habit of the body makes the very same impressions on the fancy, that the state of the mind does on the imagination.

But, "from the tyranny of Superstition, he says, there is no escape nor respite; because, in the opinion of the superstitious man, all things are within the jurisdiction of his God; and this God is inexorable and implacable "." From such a Being, indeed, there can be no escape, nor respite from torment. But, as was said before, this is not the superstitious man's God, but his Devil. Besides, the attribute of implacability totally removes, what our Author makes the other half of the miseries of Superstition; its slavish attention to the soolish and costly business of expiations and attonements: A practice arising from the idea of placability, and necessarily falling with it.

But, as if conscious of this prevarication, he adds: "That the superstitious man fears even his best conditioned Gods, the Beneficent, the Preservers: that the Gods, from whom men seek gran-

k — O ή την των θεων άξχην ως τυξαννίδα φοδέμμω σκυθεωπήν κ άπαξαίτησο, σε μείας η, σε φυγη, ωτοίων γην άθεον είξη, ποίαν δάλασταν. p. 289.

deur, affluence, peace, concord, and success, are the objects of his dread and terror 1." Here we see the superstitious man is at length confessed to have Gods very different from those before assigned unto him. However, we must not think that even these will afford him any solace or consolation. It is well that the whole proof of this cruel exclusion lies in the ambiguity of the terms,  $\varphi_{ext}$  and

1 — Ο φοθέμβο τες σατεώες κλ γρεθλίες, ο φείτθων τές σωθήςας κ) τες μειλιχέες, τεέμων η δεδοικώς σαις ών αιτέμεθα ση έτον, δύπορίων, εμύτειων, ειεήτην, δεθωσιν λύγων η έργων των αίττων. p. 289. It is remarkable, that these good-conditioned Gods, here defcribed, are called by our author malegies of youthies, his native and country Gods. Yet if we consider the stories of Jupiter, Mars, Mercury, Bacchus, Diana, &c. we shall find no great reason to extol their morals. But here lay the stress of the affair. Plutarch was a Priest of this class of Deities; and Greece, at that time, being over-run with strange Gods, and labouring under Eastern superfitions, it was proper to blacken this foreign worship, for the fake of the national: So that Plutarch, like the fair trader, in an ill humour with interlopers, reckons all Eastern rites as even worse than Atheism. Hence his famous exclamation to his Countrymen, which the noble author of the Characteriflics quotes with much exultation, and transferred bitterness. "O wretched Greeks (fays Plutarch, speaking to his then de-" clining countrymen) who in a way of superstition ran so ea-" filly into the relish of barbarous nations, and bring into Reli-"gion that frightful mien of fordid and vilifying devotion, "ill-favoured humiliation and contrition, abject looks and " countenances, consternations, prostrations, disfigurations, and " in the act of worship distortions, constrained and painful po-" stures of the body, wry faces, beggarly tones, inumpings, "grimaces, cringings, and the rest of this kind. --- A shame "indeed to us Grecians! -- Shall we, while we are nicely ob-" fervant of other forms and decencies in the Temple, shall we " neglect this greater decency in voice, words, and manners; " and with vile cries, fawnings, and proffitute behaviour, betray " the natural dignity and majesty of that divine Religion, and " NATIONAL WORSHIP, delivered down to us by our forefathers, " and purged from every thing of BARBAROUS and favage kind." Miscel. Refl. vol. III. Misc. ii. c. 3. - Such then were the circumstances of the time; and these, together with the personal views of our Author, were, I suppose, what gave birth to this famous Tract, of Superstition.

τρέμων 3

τεέμων; which, when they fignify the fearing flaviflely, do indeed imply mifery: But when they fignify fearing religiously, do as certainly imply a blessing; because they deter the subject, they influence, from evil. Now, when these terms are applied to the Gods confessedly beneficent, they can fignify only a religious fear; unless when Plutarch hath defined Superstition to be, the fearing slavishly we will be so complaisant to allow that the Superstitious MAN¹ cannot fear religiously. And where is the abfurdity in slying for refuge to Gods, so feared? Tho' Plutarch puts it among the contradictions of Superstition. The superstition of Superstition.

Another advantage of Atheism over Superstition, in Plutarch's reckoning, is, "that the Atheist is fecured from the impressions of a future state"." It is no wonder that we find this in the number of the Atheist's blessings, when we consider that our Author regarded a future state as a Fable, at best, invented for the restraint of evil. Yet, whatever pleasure the Atheist may take in his security from this terror, it is certain Society would suffer by the taking off so useful a curb upon the manners of

the multitude.

Our Author then proves, and indeed proves it to fome purpose, "That superstition is much worse than the true knowledge of the Deity"."

He considers next the different effects of Atheism and Superstition on their subjects, in the difafirous accidents of life. And here again, Atheism, as usual, is found to have the advantage. "The

1 See p. 274.

m — Φοδενται της θεως, κ) καλαφεύγυσον επί της θεώς. p. 291.

Τ΄ δεῖ μακρὰ λέγειν, πέξας ἐπὶ τὰ βια πῶσιν ἀιθρώποις ὁ θάναθων τῆς δὲ δεισιδαιμονίας ἐδ΄ ἔπω. ἀλλὶ ὑπερθάλλει τὰς ὅξας ἐπεκεινα τὰ ζῆν, μακεοτερον τὰ βία ποιᾶσα τὸν Φοδον, κὸ συνάπίασα τῷ βανάπῷ κακῶν ἐπίτοιαν ἀθανάτων, &c. p. 289—90.

O Φιλοσόφων de ng Πολίδικων ανθεων καθαφεριέστι, &c. p. 291.

Atheist indeed curses Chance, and blasphemes Providence; but the superstitious man complains of his Gods, and thinks himself hated or forsaken of them P." The Atheist is well come on. Hitherto Plutarch had represented his Favorite as unruffled by all unruly paffions: Indeed, he makes one great part of the Atheist's advantage over Superstition to consist in his freedom from them. Here, they both alike labour under their tyranny. Well, but some passions make their owner more miserable than others. It is confessed, they do. But, Is that the case here? Or if it be, Is it to the advantage of the Atheist? By no means. The disasters of life are fupposed to have betrayed them both into passion. But he furely is least oppressed by the commotion, who fees a possibility of getting out of his distresfles. It is impossible the Atheist can have any such prospect. There is no Fence against blind Chance: The fuperstitious man may easily hope to appease the irritated Deity: for though he fears and dreads the Geds, yet, as Plutarch acknowledges, he flies to them for refuge. I might mention another advantage the fuperstitious man hath over the Atheist in the difasters of life, namely, that he is frequently bettered by his misfortunes; which the Atheist never is: Because the superstitious man may suppose them fent by the Gods in punishment for his crimes; which the Atheift, never can.

"But (fays our Author) If the disafter in queftion be disease or sickness, the Atheist referring it to the right cause, intemperance, seeks out for the proper cure. While the superstitious man imagining it to be a judgment from Heaven, neglects to

F—Πάνθας ἐπὶ την τύχην κὰ τὸ αὐτύμαθον ἀπερειδομέιε τὰς ὀρυγμες, κὰ βοῶνθ ὡς οὐδεν καθα δίκην, ἐδο ἐκ προνοίας, ἀλλὰ πάνθα συγκεχυμένως κὰ ἀκρίτως Φέρεθαι, κὰ παθαται τὰ τῶν ἀνθρώπων πάνθων τὸν θεὸν αἰτιαται—κὰ ὡς ἐ δυς υχής ἢν, ἀλλὰ θερμεσής τις ἄν-θρωπ. p. 291—2,

*fupport* 

have recourse to medicine q." The delusion here is evident. It is built on that false position, which the experience of all ages hath difcredited, namely, That men always ast according to their principles. this cafe especially, of avoiding or freeing themfelves from instant physical evil, men of all principles go all one way; and however divided in their religious opinions they all meet in an uniformity to medicinal practice. It is an idle fophism which would perfuade us, that, because the superstitious man useth facred Rites to remove what he esteems a facred difease, that, therefore he employs no other means r. The early mixture of medicinal drugs with religious charms and incantations, in the first state of Physic, might have taught our Author, how naturally men are wont to lend a helping hand to the supposed efforts of Religion. But this reasoning is atterly discredited by his own instance of the Mariviers; the most superstitious of mortals; who, in the distresses of a storm, while they pour out their vows to their Saviour Gods, at the same time fall luftily to their tackle, and pump without intermission ?? Indeed, he feems fully fenfible of its weaknefs, when he catches at an occurrence in the Jewish thistory, to

r Plutarch makes the fuperfittious man say, Ταυτα σάσχεις, α κακόδαιμον, εκ σερονίας κή θεθ κελεύον 6- έξειψε σώραν ελπίδα σερήνκεδο, εαυτόν — p. 293.

<sup>9</sup> Νοσῶν τε ὁ ἀθε⊕ ἐκλογίζεθαι κὰ ἀναμιμιήσκεθαι πλησμινάς αὐτε 
τὰ οἰνώσεις, κὰ ἀταξίας σερὶ δίαθαν, ἢ κόπες ὑπεςθάλλονθας, ἢ μεθαδολας ἀερων ἀήθεις κὰ ἀτόπες—Τῷ δε δεισιδαίμοιι κὰ σώμαθος ἀξέωσια πᾶσα—πληγαὶ θεθ κὰ προσθολαὶ δαίμον≫ λίγοθαι. ὅθεν ἐδὲ
τολμᾶ βοηθείν, ἐδὲ λξαλύειν τὸ συμθεθηκὸς, ἐδὲ θεραπεύειν, οὐδὲ ἀνιπατιεδαι, μὴ δόξη θεομαχείν κὰ ἀνιτείνειν κολαζόμθο». P. 292.

Τότο Ιδών κυθερνήτης εὔχεθαι μὲν ὑπεςφυγεῖν, κỳ θεὰς ὀπικαλεῖται
σωθήζας, εὐχόμει⊚- δὰ τὸν οἴακα ωξοσαγεί, την κεραίων ὑφιησι
το. 204.

τ — Αλλά Ιεδαΐοι σαββάτων ύνθων εν άγνάμθοις καθεζομετοι, τών το λεμίων κλίμακας τροςιθέθων, εξ τὰ τίξη καθακαμβανόθων, εκ άκγησαν, &c. p. 294.

fupport it; where, we know, tho' he did not, that all things were extraordinary, and nothing to be brought into example, any more than to imitation.

To diffrace Superstition still more, our Author urges "the misfortune of Nicias the Athenian; who frightened by an eclipse of the Moon, delayed his retreat till He and his army were invested, and cut in pieces by the enemy." But this kind of superstitious observance is as well adapted to encourage as to dismay armies and bodies of men, and hath just as often done the one as the other. So that, under this article, Plutarch should have fairly stated, and balanced the account.

From the miseries of life, He comes to the pleafures of it. And here too the Atheist must have the place of honour. He confesseth, "that the pomps and ceremonies of religious Festivals abound with complacency and joy. He owns "his Atheist can receive no further amusement from such a scene than to laugh at it: But to the fuperstitious man (he fays) they are the subject of distress and misery "."-Not to allow the relaxations of the fuperititious man's mental terrors to have their effect is hard indeed. It is much the same as not to suffer us to feel the remissions of our bodily pains. If the fuperstitious man fancies the Gods are often angry, he fometimes, at least, believes them to be appeafed. And when can he hope to find them in good humour, if not at their Festivals? To draw him, therefore, at this feafon, with pale looks and trembling gestures, is certainly over-charging the picture. The truth is, the superstitious man hath as strong paroxysms of joy as of grief; though

ν "Ηδιτα δε τοῖς ἀνθεώποις εοξιαί, &c. ελαῦθα τοίνου σκοπεῖ τον ἄθεου, γελῶνια μεν μανικον κ. σαρδώνιες, γελωία τέτοις σοιεμένεις — ἄλλο δε εδεν εχονία κακόν ὁ δε δεισιδαίμων βελείαι μεν, ἐ δύναίαι δε χαίρειν, ἐδὲ πδεδαι—ἐςεραιωμές δε ἀχρία, θύει κ.) φοδείται. &c. p. 294—5.

perhaps

perhaps neither fo frequent nor fo lafting. Yet to deny them to him at the celebration of his religious Festivals is a contradiction to all common fense.

Our author next attempts to fliew, That "the crime of impiety is rather to be charged upon the fuperstitious man than the Atheist: for Anaxagoras, he fays, was accused of impiety, for holding the Sun to be only a red-hot stone: But no body challenged the Cimmerians of that crime for denying its existence"." By this, our Author would infinuate, that it is more injurious to the Gods, to hold dishonourable notions of their Nature, than to call in question their Being. The opposition of these cases is witty and ingenious: but very defective, in the integrity of the application. Plutarch's Philosophic atheift in question, corresponds no more with the Cimmerians, than his Theist does with Anaxagoras. -The Atheist, after having had a full view of the works of God, denies the existence of the Workman. The Cimmerians, because debarred the use of that sense which alone could inform them of the Sun's nature, have no conception of his being. In the first case, the conclusion being derogatory to the nature of the Power denied, the Denier is justly charged with impiety; In the latter, as no fuch derogation is implied, no fuch crime can be reasonably inferred. But this brifk fally was only to introduce the famous declaration which follows, and hath been fo often quotedx by the modern advocates of this paradox.

"Children, &c. - Essays civil and moral, c. xviii.

<sup>&</sup>quot; "Οθεν έμοιγε η θαυμάζαν έπεισε τὰς τὰ ἀλεότηξα φάσκοδρς ἐσεκ Εκαν εἶναι, μη φάσκοθας δε την δεισεδριμοτίαν καιτοιγε Αναξργείας δίκην έφυγεν ἀσειθείας δτή τῷ λίθον εἰπεῖν τὸν "Ηλιον" Κιμμες εκ κε ειδες εἶπεν ἀσειθεῖς ὅτι τὰν "Ηλιον ἐδ' εἶναι τοπαξάπαν τομίζεσε. p. 295.

<sup>&</sup>quot;It were better (fays Bacon) to have no opinion of God at all, than fuch an opinion as is unworthy of him. — Plattack faith well to that purpose. Surely, saith he, I kad rather

<sup>&</sup>quot; a great deal men should fay there was no such man as Piutarch, than that they should say there was one Plutarch that would eat his

"For my own part I had rather men should say of me, That there neither is nor ever was such a one as Plutarch; than they should say, there was a Plutarch, an unsteady, changeable, easilyprovoked, and revengeful man." These, says the noble author of the Characteristics, are the words of bonest Plutarch.

And, without doubt, did God stand only in that relation to the rest of Beings in which one creature stands to another; and was his existence no more neceffary to the universal system than the existence of bonest Plutarch, every body would fay the same. But the knowledge of a Creator and Governor is so neceffary to the rational oeconomy, that a merciful Lord would chuse to have it retained and kept alive, though it might happen to be dishonoured by many false and absurd opinions of his Nature and Attri-A private man of generous morals might rather wish to continue unknown than to be remembered with infamy. But a supreme Magistrate, who loved the Community he governed, would certainly prefer the being known to his Subjects, even at the hazard of their mistaking him for a Tyrant: because, if the members of a Community, through ignorance of their having a Ruler, should think themselves free from subjection, every one would confult his passions and appetites, till he brought the whole into confusion. Whereas, while they knew they had a Master, their actions would be fo conformed to the general measures of obedience as to support the order of Society: though their perverse notions of his Character might indeed obstruct many of those bleffings which Government produces, under a Ruler of acknowledged justice and goodness.

Our author proceeds; and observes next, "that the Atheist, it is true, believes there is no God;

but the superstitious man wishes there were none: That the Atheist is averse to Superstition; but the superstitious man, if he could, would shelter himself in Atheism<sup>2</sup>." It is by no means true that the superstitious man ever desires to be free of the sense of a superior Being, to whom he may be accountable for his actions; as appears plainly from his abhorrence and persecution of Atheism: All that he wishesh is, to render such a Being propitious, and easily placable.

As to our author's inference, concerning the better condition of Atheism, because "the Atheist never wisheth to be superstitious, though the superstitious man wisheth to be an Atheist," it is a mere supplished. The proposition, on which it standeth, amounting to no more than this, That the Atheist doth not wish what is afflictive in Superstition: And the superstitious man doth wish what is easy in Atheism. And from those restrained premises no such general conclusion can be logically inferred.

But he hath found out another reason for preferring Atheism to Superstition. "Atheism, he says, was never the cause of Superstition: but, on the contrary, Superstition has very often given birth to Atheism "." This is utterly false in fact: And the affertion betrays great ignorance of human nature; whose essential weakness it is, to run continually from one extreme to another. Modum tenere nessia est, saith the great Philosopher's very truly. And the phenomenon is no mystery. The mind, as soon as ever it becomes sensible of it's excesses striveth, for it's innate abhorrence of what is wrong, to

<sup>2</sup> Novì ປີ ຖຸລົ ກຸລົ ກຸລຸມ ຂໍປະເພ ປີຄວາປີຂານວາເລຊ ຄວີໂຄ ນະຄາຊາດ. ວ ປີຄົດຄວາປີຂານຂອງ ໝາງ ໝາງ ໝາງ ຄົດ ປີຄົດຄວາມຄວາມ ຄົດ ປີຄົດ ພັກ, ຂໍຜິຄະຄາຊາຊາດ ຄົດ ຄົດ ປີຄົດ ປີ

λίθαι. p. 297.

<sup>3</sup> Καὶ μὴν ὁ ἄθεΦ. δεισιδαιμονίας ἐδαμῆ συναίτιΦ: ἡ દો δωσιδαιμονία τῆ ἀθεότηθι κὰ βριέδαι τα αξέσχεν ἀξχὴν — p. 297.

b Bacon.

break away from them. And the force, with which it is then impelled, being increased by the struggle between its old prejudices, which would restrain it, and its new aversion, which drives it on, rarely remits, till it arrives to the opposite extreme. The behaviour of all Ages supports this observation; and of none, more than the Present. Where a centempt of Revelation having for some time spread amongst the People, we see them now become an easy prey to fanaticism and superstition: and the Methodist and the Popish Priest succeed, with great ease and silence, to the Libertine and the Freethinker.

I have now gone through our Author's various arguments in support of his Paradox; or, to call them by their right name, a group of ill-combined sophisms, tricked off by his eloquence, or varnished over with his wit.

But there is one MASTER-SOPHISM still behind. that animates the Whole, and gives a false vigour to every Part. Let us confider the question which Plutarch invites his reader to debate with him. is not, What the fimple qualities of Atheism and Superfition, if found alone in man, are feverally capable of producing: but What each really doth produce, as each is, in fact, found mingled with the rest of man's passions and appetites. He should not, therefore, have amused us with inferences from the abstract ideas of Atheism and Superstition; but should have examined their effects in the concrete, as they are to be found in the Atheist, and in the superstitious man. For, nature having sown in the human breaft the feeds of various and differing passions and appetites, the ruling passion, in each Character, is no more in its simple, unmixed state, than the predominant colour in a well-worked picture: Both the peffion and the colour are so darkened or diffipated by furrounding light and shade, so changed and varied by the reflection of neighbouring tints, as

to produce very different effects from what, in their feparate and fimple flate, whether real or imaginary, they were capable of affording. Let the reader apply this observation to any part of Plutarch's *Declamation*, who considers Atheism and Superstition not in the *concrete*, but in the *abstract*, only, and it will presently expose the inconsequence of his reasoning.

c The exquisitely learned Author of the English commentary and notes on Horace's art of poetry, has, with admirable acumen, detected and exposed the same kind of mistake in the dramatic Who when, as he observes, they were become sensible of the preference of Plays of character to Plays of intrigue, never rested till they ran into this other extreme. But hear this fine writer in his own words,-" The view of the comic scene being " to delineate characters, this end, I suppose, will be attained "most perfectly by making those characters as universal as pos-" fible. For thus the person shewn in the drama being the repre-" fentative of all characters of the same kind, furnishes, in the " highest degree, the entertainment of humour. But then this " universality must be such as agrees not to our idea of the possible " effects of the character, as conceived in the abstract; but to the " actual exertion of its powers which experience justifies, and com-"mon life allows. MOLIERE, and before him, PLAUTUS, had " offended in this; that, for a picture of the avaritious man, they " presented us with the phantastic unpleasing draught of the pas-" sion of avarice. This is not to copy Nature: which affords no " specimen of a man turned all into a single passion. No meta-"morphofis could be more strange or incredible. Yet portraits " of this vicious taste are the admiration of common starers.— "But if the reader would fee the extravagance of building dra-" matic manners on abstract ideas in its full light, he need only "turn to B. Johnson's Every man out of his humour; which, un-"der the name of a play of character, is, in fact, unnatural, "wholly chimerical, and unlike any thing we observe in real "life. Yet this Comedy has always had its admirers. And " Randolph, in particular, was fo taken with the defign, that he " feems to have formed his Muse's looking-glass in express imita-"tion of it." Diff. on the several provinces of the Drama, p. 239. When Pliny therefore compliments Silarion for giving one of his statues the expression not of an angry man but of anger itself, either it is a mere flight of rhetoric, to shew the just force of the artist's expression: or, if, indeed, the ferocious air did exceed the traces of humanity, the Philosopher's praise was misapplied, and the Statuary's figure was a Caricature. I will I will but just give an example, in one instance. He prefers Atheism to Superstition, "because this is attended with passion; that is free from all pasfion." Now the only support of this remark is the fophism in question. Consider the ideas of Atheism and Superstition in the abstract, and there is a fhew of truth: for Superstition, simply, implying the fear of the gods, is of the effence of paffion; and Atheism, simply, implying the denial of their existence, includes nothing of the idea of paffion. But confider these moral modes in the concrete, as in this question we ought to do, and Atheism will be always found accompanied with passion or affection; and of as uneasy a kind perhaps, as Superstition. It is of no moment, to this discourse, whether Plutarch hath here imposed upon himself or his reader. is possible, that, in the drawing his two characters, he might imitate, or be missed by, Theophras-TUS: Whose various pourtraits have all this fundamental defect d. But, if this were the case, he shewed as little judgment as that painter would be found to do, who should apply his simple colours just as he received them from the colourman; without forming them into those curious

Lights and fhades, whose well accorded ftrife

Gives all the strength and colour of our life.

To proceed with our author's Argument: It tends, we fee, to flew the advantage of Atheism above Superstition, only as these opinions and practices regard PARTICULARS: Though, by the turn and

d That is, if we understand them as given for copies of any thing actually existing. But, I apprehend, this is not their true character. I consider this curious fragment of Antiquity but as the remains of a Promptuary for the use of the Comic Poet, from whence he might be supplied with his materials, the simple scales; in order to blend, and shade, and work them into his pictures of real life and manners.

manage-

management of his reasoning, he seems willing you should infer that the same advantage holds equally, with regard to society also: And therefore he concludes, "That it had been better for the Gauls and Scythians to be without any Religion, than to have had such a one as taught them to believe that the Gods delighted in the blood of human victims: And much better for Carthage to have had the Atheists, Critias and Diagoras, for Lawgivers, than such as those who authorized the Sacrifices performed to Saturn b." The sophisms which support these affertions are fully detected in the introductory observation to these remarks; and so will stand in need of no further censure.

Lord BACON's chapter on Superstition, in his Essays civil and moral, is no other than an epitome of this tract of Plutarch. Now whether that great man thought his Original defective, in not attempting to shew the advantage of Atheism over Superstition, as well with regard to society as to particulars; Or whether he thought, that tho' his Author did attempt it, yet he was too concide and obscure; and therefore judged it expedient to comment on his hints; It is remarkable, that he addresses himself very strenuously, to make out this important point. "Atheism (faith his lordship) did never perturb "States; for it makes men wary of themselves, "as looking no farther: And we fee, the times "inclined to Atheisin, as the time of Augustus "Cæfar, were civil times. But Superstition hath " been the confusion of many States; and bring-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>—Οὐκ ἄμεινον ἔν ἦν Γαλάταις ἐκείνοις κὰ Σκύθαις τοπαςάπαν μήτε ἐννοιαν ἔχειν θεῶν, μήτε φαθασίαν, μήτε ἱτοςἰαν, η θεὰς εἶναι νομίζειν χαίροθας ἀνθραπων φατθομλιών αῖμασι— τί δὲ Καεχκοδονίοις ἐκ ἰλυσθέλει Κριτίαν λαθθσιν ἢ Διαγόραν τουοθιτίω ἀπ΄ ἀρχῆς, μήτε τικὰ θεῶν μήτε δαιμονών περίζειν, ἢ τοιαῦτα θυθιν οἶα τῷ Κριτώ ἐθυον;
— p. 297.

"the spheres of Government. The Master of Su-

" perstition is the People."

This is a paragraph totally unworthy fo great a genius. Atheism, he fays, did never perturb States. The observation is true. But to make it to his purpose, he must suppose, that this negative advantage ariseth from the essential nature and intrinfic genius of Atheism; and not from mere accident. And so he plainly infinuates, in the reason subjoined: - For it makes men wary of themselves, &c. But the truth is, it is not from the nature of things, but by mere accident, that Atheism never perturbed States; it having rarely, or never, spread amongst the People, but hath been confined to a few speculative men. If ever it should become thus extensive, it must not only perturb States, but, as we have shewn at large', would certainly overturn Society. Indeed his Lordship himself fairly confesseth thus much, where, charging this very mitchief on Superstition, he subjoins the cause of its malignity—the master of supersition is the people, i. e. the people are they who are infected with this error. Atheilm. he fays, makes men wary of themselves as looking no further: This argument in favour of Atheilm seems to have been borrowed from CARDAN; and hath been confidered in its placed.

The times, inclined to Atheism, he says, were civil times: I know of no times inclined to Atheism; that is, when the people had a propensity to it, unless, perhaps, two or three centuries ago in Italy; and then the times were as miserable as civil distractions could make a bad government. His Lordship, indeed, refers to the age of Augustus Cæ-

e Book I. sect. iv.

See the first part of this Vol. p. 34.

But it is certain, that, at that time, no Roman troubled his head with Grecian principles, (and A theifm was then to be had no where elfe) except it were a few of the Nobility: Then, indeed, part of their Grandees, to make themselves easy under Servitude, espoused the principles of Epicurus: But a much larger part followed the doctrine of the Porch. Either ferved their turn. If they could perfuade themselves to believe, that their miseries were inevitable, it was just as well as if they could force themselves to think that they were no evils. The foft, the delicate, the luxurious, espoused the first: The more rigid, and severe of morals, the letter. But still we must observe, that their PRINCI-PLES were the consequence of their acquiescence in a state of Servitude; not the cause; as his lordship would infinuate: And did then, in reality, no more affect the Public, then their different tastes for wildboar or mullets.

The time of Augustus Casar, he says, was a civil time. And this must be placed to the score of Atheifm, although the real cause be so very obvious: The miseries of the preceding civil wars, often renewed, with still greater violence, and still less effect, made men weary both of struggling and suffering; and willing at last, to thrust their necks under the voke of a well-established master. And this, and this only, was the thing, which, in the ceaseless rotation of human affairs, produced that still calm of real Slavery, after a long tempestuous season of nominal Liberty.

However, the general observation we made on PLUTARCH may be properly applied to BACON: What he wants in fact an argument, he makes up in wit, and the ornaments of fancy: as where he fays, Superstition bringeth in a new primum mobile, that ravisheth all the spheres of government. By which pompous pompous expressions no more is meant than the Churchman's destructive claim of independency on the State: Which conceals a vile ambition under the cloak of Religion: A claim, which, at that time, those two capital enemies of the established Church, the PAPIST and the PURITAN, alike pursued; as then, to the disturbance, so wherever they succeed, to the certain ruin of civil Government.

But to return to Plutarch, and conclude. The only fage part of his Declamation is in his last words; where he observes, "That, for the reasons he hath given, we ought to shun and avoid Superstition; but so cautiously, as not to fall into the other extreme of Atheism; like those giddy travelers, who slying from wild beasts and robbers, fall down rocks and precipices, where they perish." But to inforce so plain a conclusion, there was no need of all that expence of wit and sophistry to prove, (what the conclusion did not want) That Atheism was in all things preferable to Superstition. To proceed,

III. As to the Inventors not believing what they taught of a principle of Religion, which is the last pretence, This comes with an ill grace from an Atheist, who, under cover of an unquestionable maxim, That, in matters of speculation, reason and not authority should determine the judgment, despiseth all authority, so as to oppose his own singularities against the common sense of mankind. Was it true then that the Inventors did not believe what they taught, this would be seen to be a very poor argument against its truth.

But

<sup>Φικληθον εν αυν την ασφαλώς τε το συμφερόλως, εχ ώσπες οι ληςών η επικούν εξυδοι, η ποῦς απερισκέπως το άλογος τως πεφεύγοντες, εμπίπθεσιν εἰς αποδίας βαξαθέα το περιμπές εχέσας ενώς η είνοι φεύγοντες την δεισιδαιμονίαν, εμπίπθεσιν εἰς αθεότηλα τραχείαν το ανίπτυπον, υπερπηθησανίες εν μέσω ποιμένου την ευσίδειαν. p. 298.</sup> 

But indeed, the supposition is absolutely false; and betrays groß ignorance of the true character of the ancient lawgivers. The idea, our adversaries have formed of these civilizers of mankind (as men are but too apt, in their representations of others, to copy from themselves) is of a species of fly cold-headed cheats, whose capacity arose only from the predominancy of their phlegm. But the History of all times might have told them, that, amongst the infirmities of Heroes, a deficiency of faith is not one. Diodorus was so sensible of their propenfity to be on the believing fide, that he makes it a question, Whether those ancient Lawgivers, whom he there enumerates, did not really believe the divine mission they professed to execute? "They "did this (fays he) either because they really thought "that the conceptions which they had formed, so " productive of public good, must needs be strict-"Iy fupernatural and divine ","—And I may venture to affirm, That there never was a great Conqueror, a Founder of Civil Policy, or the Preacher up of a new Religion, (if he fucceeded by mere human means,) but who was naturally much inclined to Enthusiasm. Not that I suppose the heat of Enthusiasm is not always tempered, in Heroes, with an equal share of CRAFT and policy. This extraordinary composition makes their true character: A character fo much better conceived than expressed, that it hath embarraffed the pen even of a Livy to delineate correctly f. Tacitus indeed, hath spoken

Είτε θαυματήν η θείαν όλως έννοιαν τη πείνανίας την μέλλυσας υφελήσειν αιθεώπων σιλήθω, είτε—1. i. p. 59. S. E.

f Whose picture of Scipio Africanus, is, however, so very curious, that the learned reader will not be displeased to find it in this place:—Quam ubi ab re tanto impetu acta solicitudinem curamque hominum animadvertit, advocata concione, ita de ætate sua imperioque mandato. et bello quod gerendum esset,

fomewhat clearer of this mysterious mixture, where he tells us, that the operation of the whole machine is no more than this, FINGUNT, SIMUL CREDUNT-OUE.

But the necessity of this odd paired alliance appears plainly from the nature of things. A mere cold-beaded Contriver, without any tincture of natural enthusiasm can never succeed in his designs; because such a One can never furnish out those surprizing appearances, which a heated imagination, working on a disordered, though, for this purpose, fitly-framed constitution, so speciously produces. For the spirits of the People, who are necessarily to be taken in, can be only captivated by raising their admiration, and keeping up their considence, of a supposed supernatural power. St. Jerom seems to have had something of this in his head, when he said nullus potest Hæresin struere, nis qui ardentis ingenii est, et babet dona naturæ. Besides,

magno elatoque animo differuit, ut impleret homines certioris spei, quam quantam sides promissi humani, aut ratio ex siducia rerum subjicere solet. Fuit enim Scipio, non veris tantum virtutibus mirabilis, sed arte quoque quadam ab juventa in ostentationem earum compositus: pleraque apud multitudinem, aut per nocturnas visa species, aut velut divinitus, mente monita, agens: sive ut ipse capti quadam superstitione animi, sive ut imperia consiliaque, velut sorte oraculi missa, sine cunctatione assequeretur. Ad hæc jam inde ab initio præparans animos, ex quo togam virilem sumpsit, nullo die prius ullam publicam privatamque rem egit, quam in Capitolium iret, ingressusque ædem consideret, & plerumque tempus folus in secreto ibi tereret. Hic mos, qui per omnem vitam servabatur, seu consulto, seu temere, vulgatæ opinioni fidem apud quosdam fecit, stirpis eum divinæ virum esse, retulitque famam, in Alexandro Magno prius vulgatam, & vanitate & fabula parem, anguis immanis concubitu conceptum, & in cubiculo matris ejus persæpe visam prodigii ejus speciem, interventuque hominum evolutam repente, atque ex oculis elapsam. His miraculis numquam ab ipso elusa sides est; quin potius aucta arte quadam, nec abnuendi tale quicquam, nec palam affirmandi. Hift. lib. xxvi.

new notions, or new manners are never fo readily received as when the Propagator of them is in earneft, and believes himself: For then, there is something so natural in his behaviour, as easily conciliates wavering opinions; something so alluring, that it looks like a kind of sascination. Which made an ingenious French writer not scruple to say; "Give me but half a dozen men whom I can thoroughly persuade that it is not the Sun makes the day, and I would not despair of seeing whole nations brought over to the same opi-

On the other hand, a mere Enthusiast, who, by virtue of this power, hath gone so far in his design, as to raise the admiration, and captivate the spirits of the Populace, must here fail for want of the other quality. For his enthusiasm not being under the government of his judgment, he will want the necessary dexterity to apply the different views, tempers, and constitutions of the People, now enflamed, and ready to become his instruments, to the purpose of his project.

But when these two talents of cunning and enthufiasim unite to surnish out a Hero, great will be the success of his undertakings. The sallies of enthusiasim will be so corrected by his cunning, as to strengthen and confirm his supernatural pretences: And the cold and slow advances of a too cautious policy, will be warmed and pushed forward by the force of his fanaticism. His crast will enable him to elude the enquiries and objections of the more rational; and his visions will irrecoverably subdue all the warmer noddles. In a word, they will mu-

B Donnez moi une demi-douzaine de personnes, à qui je puisse persuader que ce ne'st pas le Soleil qui fait le jour, je ne desesperai pas que des nations entieres n'embrassent cette opinion. Fontavelle Hist. des Oracles, cap. xi.

tually firengthen and inforce each others power; and cover and repair each others defects. And indeed, there are so many powerful and opposite interests to overcome and reconcile, so much caprice and humour to cajole, and artfully to apply; that it is not strange, that no one ever yet succeeded in any great design, where a whole People was the instrument, who had not reconciled in himself, by a happy union, these two, seeming, and commonly speaking, really incompatible qualities.

One might here shew, by an historical deduction from ancient and modern Times, that all those fortunate *Disturbers* or *Benefactors* of mankind, who have prospered in their designs, were indebted for their success to the mutual affistance of these two Qualities. By this operation, under the management of such as Mahomet, Ignatius Loiola, and Oliver Cromwell, great and powerful Em-

pires have been created out of nothing.

And again, it might be shewn, that those, who are upon the records of History for having failed, were either mere Enthusiasts, who knew not how to push their projects, when they had disposed the People to support them; or else mere Politicians, who could never advance their wife schemes so far, as to engage the Populace to fecond them; or laftly, which most deserves our observation, such as had the two qualities in conjunction, but in a reverted order. Of each of which defects, we have a domeflic example in the three great Companions of the last successful Impostor, mentioned above; I mean in Fleetwood, Lambert, and Vane. -- Crom-WELL had prepared the way for their fuccession to his power, as thoroughly as Mahomet had done for that of Abubeker, Omar, and Othman. Yet these various wants defeated all their efforts, and rendered rendered all his preparations fruitless. Fleetwood was a frank entbusiast, without parts or capacity; Lambert a cool cheat, without fanaticism; and Sir Harry Vane, who had great parts, and as great enthusiasim, yet had them, and used them, in so preposterous an order as to do him no kind of service. For the history of those times informs us, that he began a fober and fedate plotter: But, when now come in view of the goal, he started out the wildest and most extravagant of Enthusiasts: In a word, he ended just where his MASTERbegan. So that we need not wonder his fortune proved fo different. But this was a course as rare as it appears to be retrograde. The affections naturally take another turn. And the reason is evident. Enthusiasm is a kind of ebullition, or critical ferment of the Mind; which a vigorous nature can work through; and, by flow degrees, be able to cast off. Hence the most fuccessful Impostors, as we fay, have fet out in all the blaze of Fanaticism, and completed their schemes amidst the cool depth and stillness of Politics. Though this be common to them all, yet I don't know any who exemplifies the case so strongly as the famous Ignatius Loiola. This illustrious personage, who confirms the observation of one who came after him b, and almost equalled him in his trade, "that a man never rifes fo high as when he does not know whither he is going," began his extafies in the mire: and completed his schemes with the direction and execution of Councils, that, even in his own life-time, were ready to give the law to Christendom.

But these things belong rather to the History of the human Mind than to the work I have in hand: and besides, would keep me too long from

the conclusion of the volume, to which I am now hastening. I will only observe, that this high Enthusiasim was so conspicuous in the character of ancient Heroism, and so powerful in making easy the most difficult undertakings, that the learned Varro scruples not to say, "It is of great advantage to Society, that Heroes should believe themselves the offspring of the Gods, whether indeed they be so or not. That by this means, the mind, considing in its divine original, may rise above Humanity; so as more sublimely to project, more boldly to execute, and more happily to establish the grand schemes it labours with, for the service of mankind i."

Hence it appears, that if Religion were a cheat, the Legislators themselves were among the first who sell into the deceit.

On the whole then we fee, That of all these mediums, whereby our adversaries would infer that Religion is false, because invented by Statesmen, the third, which is most to their purpose, proves nothing: While, of the other two, the first is a high presumption; and the second, a demonstration of the truth of Religion.

I have faid, that it was (I don't know how) taken on all hands for granted, that the invention of Religion by Politicians inferred its falfhood. But, on fecond thoughts, I am perfuaded, the too great facility in agreeing to this conclusion arose from hence; The popular argument of the innate idea of God, had been for many ages esteemed a demonstration of his Being and Attributes: And the political origin of

Jutile est civitatibus, ut se viri sortes, etiamsi falsum sit, ex diis genitos esse credant, ut eo modo animus humanus, velut divinæ stirpis siduciam gerens, res magnas aggrediendas præsumat audacius, agat vehementius, & ob hoc impleat ipsa securitate selicius. Apud Aug. Civ. Dei, l. iii c. 4.

Religion

Religion overthrowing that argument, it was too hastily concluded that it overthrew the truth of Religion in general: For prejudice had established this consequence, If no innate idea of God, Then no God at all.

## II.

But now, though (as hath been proved) the granting this infidel pretence doth not at all affect the truth of NATURAL RELIGION; yet it doth by accident, and by accident only, affect the truth of Revelation: Because Holy Scripture hath given us a different account of the origin of divine vorship.

I shall shew therefore, in the next place, that the Notion is as false and visionary, as it is vain and impertinent; first, by examining the circumstances from which it's pretended truth is inferred; and secondly, by producing plain matter of fact to the

contrary.

I. The first of these circumstances is, That the Lawgiver employed his utmost pains and labour in teaching, propagating, and establishing Religion. But what can be inferred from hence besides this, That he employed his pains from a full conviction of its utility? And howshould he come by that conviction but from observing the effects of its influence on the actions of men? Which must needs suppose him to have found, and not to have invented Religion.

If this argumentagainst Religion hath any weight, we must conclude the Magistrate was not only the inventor of natural Religion, but of natural Justice likewise; for he took the same pains in teaching, propagating, and establishing both. But will any one pretend to say, that men, in a state of nature, had no ideas of justice? Indeed, both one and the other had lost much of their efficacy, when

men applied to the civil Magistrate for relief: And this explains the reason why, on their entering into Society, the Legislator was always so intent upon Religion; namely, that he might recover it from the powerless condition, to which it was then reduced.

It will be faid, perhaps, that the Atheist doth, in fact, contend, that natural justice was an invention of Politicians, as well as Religion. We have seen, indeed, a countryman of our own, who hath made this proposition the foundation of his Philosophy, that Just and Unjust arose from the Civil Magistrate. But then, he never supposed, that men, before Society, had no idea of these things: All he would contend for was, that the idea was merely fantastic.

II. The other, and more peculiar circumstance from which our adversaries infer their paradox, is, that the first and original idolatry was the worship of DEAD MEN: And these being Lawgivers, Magistrates, and public Benefactors, Religion appears to have been a political inftitution. So amongst the Ancients, Euhemerus, furnamed the Atheist, wrote a treatise to prove that the first gods of Greece were dead men; which Tully, who faw his drift, rightly observed, tended to overturn all Religion k. And fo, amongst the Moderns, TOLAND, the pious author of the Pantheisticon, with the same defign, wrote a pamphlet, intitled, Of the origin of Idolatry, and reasons of Heathenism. It is not unpleasant to observe the uniform conduct of this noble pair of writers, which one never fails to find in authors of a like character, how distant soever in time or country. Euhemerus pretended his design was only to expose the popular religion of Greece;

and Toland, that his prodigious learning was only pointed against Pagan idolatry: While the real end of both, was the destruction of Religion in

general.

It must be owned, that this circumstance, of the first and original idolatry, hath a face of plausibility; but then it hath only a face, being manifestly founded on this sophism. That the first idolatry, and the first religious worship, are one and the same thing. Whereas, it is not only possible that the worship of the first Cause of all things should be prior to any Idol worship; but, in the highest degree, probable that it was: Idol worship having none of the marks of an original practice; and all the circumstances attending a depraved and corrupt institution.

But it being utterly false that the wership of dead men was the primitive Idelatry, We shall endeavour to convince these men of a Fact they are so un-

willing to fee or acknowledge.

I was pleafed to find a book, like this of Toland's, written professedly on the subject; being in hopes to meet with fomething like argument or learning that would justify an examination of it: For an answer to a licentious writer arrests the attention of common readers, better than general reasoning, though this goes more directly to the fact, and determines the question with greater precision. But I had the mortification to find nothing there but an indigested heap of commonplace quotations from the Ancients; and an unmeaning collection of common-place reflexions from modern infidels; without the least seasoning of logic or criticism, to justify the waste of time to the Reader, or to make the labour supportable to one's felf. And the authority of the man, which is nothing, could not engage me to any farther notice of his book. But another, whose name stands justly highest in the learned world, and whose heart VOL. II. U was

was as unlike this writer's as his head, feems to be of the fame opinion concerning the primitive idolatry. It is the incomparable Newton in his Chronology of the Greeks. His words are these: " Æacus the son of Ægina, who was two "generations older than the Trojan war, is by "fome reputed one of the first who built a temple "in Greece. Oracles came first from Egypt into "Greece about the fame time, as also did the custom " of forming the images of the gods, with their legs bound up in the shape of the Egyptian nummies: For "IDOLATRY began in Chaldaea and Egypt, and "fpread thence, &c .- The countries upon the "Tigris and the Nile being exceeding fertile, "were first frequented by mankind, and grew first "into kingdoms, and therefore began first to adore "their dead kings and queens ." This great man, we fee, takes it for granted, that the worship of dead men was the FIRST kind of idolatry: And fo only infinuates a reason for this supposed fact, namely, that the worship of dead men introduced image worship: For, the Egyptians first worshiped dead men in person, that is, in their mummies m; which when loft, confumed, or deftroyed, were worshiped by representation, under an image made with its legs bound up, in likeness of the mummies. The reader now will be curious to know how this infers the other, that the worship of dead men was the primitive idolatry? All I can fay to it is, that the excellent Person seems to have put the change upon himself, in supposing image worship inseparably attendant on idolatry in general; when it was but commonly attendant on Hero-worship; and rarely upon the Elementary. As to the elementary, Hero-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Chron. of ancient kingdoms, p. 160. <sup>m</sup> See vel. II. plate V. fig. 1, 2, and 3 compared together.

dotus n tells us that the Persians, who worshiped the celestial bodies, had no statues of their gods at all: And as to Hero-worship, we are affured by Dionysius Halicarnasseus, that the Romans, whose Gods were dead men deisied, worshiped them, during some ages, without statues.

But to come closer to the point: Our Adversaries overturn their position, on the very entrance on the question. The grand symbol of the Atheistic school is, that Fear first made gods:

## " Primus in orbe Deos fecit timor.

And yet, if we will believe them, these first gods were dead men, deisied for their public benefits to their country, or mankind: "Not only (says "Toland) kings and queens, great generals and legislators, the patrons of learning, promoters of curious arts, and authors of useful inventions partook of this honour; but also such private persons, as by their virtuous actions had distinguished themselves from others."

But to pass this over. Their great principle of FEAR is every way destructive of their system: For those very ages of the world, in which FEAR most prevailed, and was the predominant passion of mankind, were the times BEFORE civil society; when every man's hand was against his brother. If fear then was the origin of Religion, Religion, without question, was BEFORE civil Society.

But neither to infift upon this: Let us hear what the ancient *Theists* thought of the matter. They faid it was LOVE, and not FEAR, which was the origin of Religion. Thus Seneca: "Nec in hunc "furorem omnes mortales confensissent alloquendi "furda numina & inefficaces deos; nisi nossent il-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>n</sup> See p. 96, 97. note (9).

<sup>·</sup> Letters to Serena, Tract of the origin of Idolatry, p. 73.

" lorum BENEFICIA nunc ultro oblata, nunc oran" tibus data; magna, tempestiva, ingentes minas
" interventu suo solventia. Quis est autem tam
" miser, tam neglectus, quis tam duro fato, & in
" pænam genitus, ut non tantam deorum munisi" centiam senserit? Ipsos illos complorantes sor" tem suam, & querulos circumspice, invenies
" non ex toto beneficiorum cælestium expertes;
" neminem esse, ad quem non aliquid ex illo BE" NIGNISSIMO FONTE manaverit p."

But as HOPE and FEAR, LOVE and HATRED, are the cardinal hinges, on which all human actions and cogitations turn, I suppose it was neither one nor other of these passions alone, but both of them together, which opened to those early Mortals (whose uncultivated reason had not yet gained the knowledge, or whose degenerate manners had now lost the tradition of the TRUE GOD) the first idea of supposition Princes.

fuperior Beings.

I. Such men, in a state of nature, whose sub-stiftence was immediately to be supplied by the product of the earth, would be exact observers of what facilitated or retarded those supplies: So that of course, the grand genial Power of the system, that visible God the sun, would be soon regarded by them as a most beneficent Deity: And thunder and lightning, storms and tempests, which his Qualities produced, would be considered as the effects of his anger. The rest of the celestial Orbs would, in proportion to their use and appearance, be regarded in the same light. That noble fragment from Sanchoniatho, quoted above a, as part of the History rehearsed in the ἀπόριμα of the Mysteries, gives this very original to Idolatry. It tells us that "Genos

P De Benef. 1. iv. c. 4. 9 Div. Leg. vol. I. part i. p. 168.

and Genea (begotten of the two first mortals, Protogonus and Æon) in the time of great droughts, stretched out their hands towards the sun, whom they regarded as a God, and sole Ruler of the heavens. After two or three generations, came Upsouranies and his brother Ousous. These consecrated two pillars to fire and wind, and then offered bloody facrifices to them, as to Gods." This is a very natural account of the origine and first species of Idolatry. That it is the true, we shall now endeavour to shew.

1. Those ancient people of the North and South, the Suevi, the Arabs, and Africans, who lived long uncivilized, and in tribes, were all worshipers of the celestial Bodies. The same appears to have been the case of the Chinese; of the North Americans; and of the People of Mexico and Peru; as may be collected from what is said above, of their first Lawgivers pretending to be the offspring of the Sun and Heaven. For we may be affured they had the sense to chuse a well established authority, under which to set up their own Pretensions.

2. But all Antiquity concurs in afferting, that the first religious adoration, paid to the creature, was the worship of heavenly Bodies. This was so evident, and so universally acknowledged, that Critian himself, as we see s, was forced to allow its truth. And this being the entire overthrow of his system of the origin of religion, nothing but the fullest evidence could have extorted the confession from him.

To support so manifest a point with a long heap of quotations, would be trifling with the reader's patience.

See his lambics above.

r Le Soleil est la divinité des peuples de l'Amerique, sans en excepter aucun de ceux qui nous sont connus. Lafitau, Mœurs des sauvages Ameriquains, tom. i. p. 130.

To cut the matter fhort, Eusebius expressly affirms, and attempts to strengthen his position by an etymology of the word ΘΕΟΣ, that no Beings were anciently accounted Gods or divine, neither dead men, nor demons good or bad; but the STARS

of heaven only s.

But as Greece and Egypt, the two Countries where civil Policy took deepest root, and spread its largest influence, had, by the long custom of deifying their public Benefactors, so erased the memory of a prior idolatry, as to have this fecond species of it, by some moderns, deemed the first; I shall produce an ancient testimony or two, of the highest credit, to shew that the adoration of the celestial Bodies was the first idol-worship in those two grand Nurseries of Superstition, as well as in all other places.

I. IT APPEARS TO ME (fays Plato in his Cratylus) THAT THE FIRST MEN WHO INHABITED GREECE, HELD THOSE ONLY TO BE GODS, WHICH MANY BARBARIANS AT PRESENT WORSHIP; NAMELY, THE SUN, MOON, EARTH, STARS, AND HEAVEN. The barbarians here hinted at, were both fuch as remained in, and fuch as had got out of, the fate of nature. As first, the civilized Persians, of whom Herodotus gives this account: "They worship the Sun, Moon, and "Earth, Fire, Water, and the Winds: And this

τ Φαίνολας μοι οι σχώτοι τ ἀνθιώπων σελτ Ἑλλάδα τέτες μόιες Οιθς ηγήται, ώστερ νω σολλοί των βαςδάςων, "Ηλιον, η Σελήνω, η

The, R. Asga, R. Ougavor.

s Αλλ' ότι με ισουτοι η σαλαιόταξοι των ώθεωπων, έτε ναων εξιουσωίαις στρουίχου—ότι δε έδε των μη ταυτα καθενομασμένων θεων τε κ) ήρωων μινήμη τις τοις τοιε σαζίν, ετ έν τις ήν αυτοίς Ζευς, ε Κερων, εξ.— άλλα έδε δαίμων τις αγαθές, ή φαύλω όν αιθεώποις εθαυμαζίου μόνα δε τα φαινόωρα των εξανίων Ας εων, σαξά το θέειν, ότιες ελ τιξχιν, θεωντε σερουγορίας, ως αυτοί φασιν ετύγχανε. Prap. Ευαης. 1. i c. 9-

"adoration they have all along paid from the very beginning. Afterwards, indeed, they learned to worship Urania, &c." And so goes on to speak of their later idolatry of dead mortals. Secondly, the savage Africans, of whom the same Herodotus says, "They worship only the "Sun" and Moon: The same do all the Africans "."

2. DIODORUS SICULUS, fpeaking of the EGYPTIANS, tells US, THAT THE FIRST MEN LOOKING UP TO THE WORLD ABOVE THEM, AND TERRIFIED AND STRUCK WITH ADMIRATION AT THE NATURE OF THE UNIVERSE, SUPPOSED THE SUN AND MOON TO BE THE PRINCIPAL AND ETERNAL GODS X. The reason which the historian assigns, makes his affertion general; and shews he believed this idolatry to be the first every where else, as well as in EGYPT. But that it was so there, we have likewise good internal evidence, from a circumstance in their hieroglyphics, the most ancient method of recording knowledge: Where, as we are told by Horus Apollo, a star denoted or expressed the idea of the Deity.

Such was the genius and state of Idolatry in the UNCIVILIZED world. So that the author of the book called, The wisdom of Solomon, said well, "Surely "vain are all men by nature who are ignorant of God; and could not by considering the Work, acknowledge the Work-master: but deemed eifther Fire or Wind, or the swift air, or the

🤍 Θύεσι δὲ Ἡλίω κζ Σελήνη μένοισι τέτοισι με νων σανθες Λίθυες

θύεσι. l. iv. c. 188.

Θύνοι δὲ Ἡλίω τε ιὰ Σελίνη, κὰ Γῆ, κὰ Πυρὶ, κὰ "Υδαίι, κὰ 'Ανέρρισι. τέτοισι κὰ δη μένοισι δύνοι ἀξχῆθει' ἐπεμεμαθήκασι δε κὰ τῆ Ουζανίη θύκα.—1. i. c. 131.

<sup>\*</sup> Τες ἀιθεωπες το σαλαιον γλιομθύες ἀναθλεψανίας εἰς τὰ κόσμον, κὰ τὰν τὰ ὁλων Φύσιν καθαπλαγβότας κὰ Βαυμάσανίας, ὑπολαθεῖν εἰ) Βεὰς ἀἰδίες τε κὰ σεώτες, τὸν τε Ελιον κὰ Σελήνω.—1. i.

Υ 'Ας ηρ σας' Αίγυπίτοις γεαζόμβο Θεον σημαίκ. l. ii. c. i.

"circle of the stars, or the violent water, or the LIGHTS OF HEAVEN, to be the Gods which gowern the World 2."

II. But when now Society had produced those mighty bleffings, which exalt our brutal nature to a life of elegance and reason; and, in exchange for penury, diffress, and danger, had established safety, and procured all the accommodations of civil intercourse, the religious system received as great, though far from so advantageous, a change as the

political.

I. Gratitude and admiration, the warmest and most active affections of our nature, concurred to enlarge the object of Religious worship; and to make men regard those Benefactors of human nature, the Founders of Society, as having more in them than a common ray of the Divinity. So that, god-like benefits bespeaking, as it were, a god-like mind, the deceased Parent of a People easily advanced into an Immortal. From hence arose, though not till some time after, their metaphysical distribution of Souls into the several classes of buman, beroic, and demonic. A distinction which served greatly to support this species of Idolatry.

2. When the religious bias was in fo good a train, NATURAL AFFECTION would have its share in advancing this new system of Adoration. PIETY TO PARENTS would easily take the lead; as it was supported by gratitude and admiration, the primum mobile of this whole machine: The natural Father of the Tribe often happening to be the political Father of the People, and Founder

of the State.

3. Fondness for the Offspring would next have its turn. And a difconfolate Father, at the

head of a People, would contrive to footh his grief for the untimely death of a favorite child, and to gratify his pride under the want of Succession, by paying divine honours to its memory. "For a "Father afflicted with untimely mourning, when he had made an image of his child, foon taken away, "now honoured him as a God, which was then a dead man, and delivered, to those that were "Under him, ceremonies and facrifices a."

4. Lastly, the Subject's reverence for his Master, the Citizen's veneration for the Lawgiver, would not be far behind to complete this religious Farce of mistaken gratitude and affection.

This was the course of the second species of Idolatry; as we may collect from ancient history both sacred and profane: And, especially, from the samous fragment of Sanchoniatho, which partakes so much of both; where these various motives for this species of Idolatry are recounted in express words: "After many generations came Chrysor; and he "INVENTED many things useful to civil life; for "which, after his decease, he was worshiped as a "God. Then flourished Ouranos and his sister Ge; "who deisted and offered sacrisces to their Father "Upsistos, when he had been torn in pieces by wild beasts. Afterwards Cronos consecrated Muth bis "Son, and was bimself consecrated by bis Sue-" Jects"."

III. But Idolatry did not stop here. For when men, as the Apostle says, would not retain God in their knowledge, He gave them up to their own vain imaginations, whereby they changed the truth of God into a lye,—into an image made like to corruptible man, and to birds, and to four-footed beasts, and to creeping things. How this last monstrous change was

<sup>2</sup> Wifd. of Sol. c. xiv. 15.

b See p. 169 of the first part of this vol.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>с</sup> Rom. ch. i. 23.

effected, I have discoursed of at large, elsewhere d. It is fufficient to observe at present, that it was begun in Egypt, and was propagated from thence: Where the method of their Learned, to record the history of their Hero-gods, in improved hieroglyphics, gave birth to BRUTE-WORSHIP. For the characters of this kind of writing being the figures of animals, which ftood for marks of their Elementary Gods, and principally of their Heroes, foon made their hieroglyphics facred. And this, in no great space of time, introduced a symbolic worship of their Gods, under hieroglyphic Figures. But the People, how naturally, we may fee by the practice of faint-worship in the church of Rome, presently forgot the symbol or relation; and depraved this fuperstition still farther, by a direct worship: till at length, the animals themselves, whose figures these hieroglyphic marks represented, became the object of religious adoration. Which species of Idolatry, by the credit and commerce of the Egy-PTIANS, and their carriers the Phoenicians, in course of time, spread amongst many other nations. And this was the THIRD and last species of Pagan Idolatry.

And here again, as well for the *original* as the *order* of this Idolatry, we have the confirmation of *Sanchoniatho's* authority: "Ouranos (fays he) was "the Inventor of the *Bætylia*, a kind of ANIMATED "STONES framed with great art. And *Taautus*" [the Egyptian] formed ALLEGORIC FIGURES, "CHARACTERS AND IMAGES of the *celeftial* Gods

" and Elements e."

By these animated stones (as is observed above) must needs be meant, stones cut into a human sigure.

d Book IV. fect. iv.

e P. 170. of the first part of this vol.

For, before this invention, brute, uninformed, or pyramidal Stones, were confecrated and adored. The allegoric figures and characters more plainly defcribe Hieroglyphic writing: From whence, as we fay, this tpecies of Idolatry was first derived.

This is a plain, confiftent account of the RISE and progress of Pagan Idolatry; equally fupported by the scattered evidence of Antiquty, and the certain reason of things. I say, "the scattered "evidence of Antiquity:" For I know of no writer who hath given us a direct, or fo much as consistent, account of this matter. And it is no wonder. For a fystem of Religion, of which the MORTAL Gods are so considerable a part, would appear too hard even for the digeftion of the People. An expedient therefore was foon found, and in a very natural incident, to throw a veil over this fhocking abfurdity; and this was by pretending one while, to those who grew inquisitive concerning the nature of the Hero-Gods, that these Gods were only symbolic of the Celestial: and at another, to those who pried too closely into the elementary worship, that this was only symbolical of their Heroes: who were not dead men, as might be fuspected, but a species of superior Beings, which, in affection to mankind, had once been converfant on Earth: and whom, now, a deification had reinstated in their original Rights. Thus the popular belief presented nothing but one uniform order of Immortals: The secret of the buman original of one part of them being referved for the private instruction of the MYSTERIES.

This cover for these absurd Idolatries, would naturally produce two orthodox Parties of symbolizers in the Pagan Church. They, who most favoured Hero-worship, would find the Symbol in Elemen-

tary: And they, who liked best of the Elementary, would find the Symbol in the Heroic. Both parties, as usual, laid claim to primitive Antiquity. For true it is, that the DEGREES and MANNER by which the early Mortals superinduced the worship of dead men on the primary idolatrous worship of the beavenly Bodies, gave countenance to either fide. This was the natural incident I spoke of above, as favouring the expedient employed to hide the difhonours of Paganism. The matter is worth know-

ing; and I shall endeavour to explain it.

I. The first step to the Apotheosis was the complimenting their Heroes and public Benefactors, with the Name of that Being, which was most esteemed and reverenced. Thus a King, for his beneficence, was called the Sun; and a Queen, for her beauty, the Moon. Diodorus relates. that Sol first reigned in Egypt; called so FROM THE LUMINARY OF THAT NAME IN THE HEAVENS f. This will help us to understand an odd passage in the fragment of Sanchoniatho, where it is faid, "that Cronus had feven fons by "Rhea, the youngest of which was made a God, "as foon as born g." The meaning, I fuppose, is, that this youngest son was called after some luminary in the Heavens, to which they paid divine honours: and these honours, came, in time, to be transferred to the terrestrial name-sake. The same Historian had before told us, that the fons of Guenos, mortals like their father, were

Ε — Τῷ αὐτῷ [Κείνω] γίνον] ἀπὸ Ρέας παῖδες ἐπλά ὧν ὁνεωταλω. άμα τη βρέσει άφιεςώθη.

τ Πρώτου μεν Ήλιον βασιλεύσαι των κατ' Αίγυπίου, δμώνυμου όνία τῷ κατ' ἐξανὸν ἄςςω. l.i. In the language of Egypt called men, as we see in Herod. l.ii. c. 99. The practice of Assyrian supersition was the same; their king Belus being named from Egal the Sun.

called by the names of the elements, light, five, and

flame, whose use they had discovered h.

2. As this adulation advanced into an established worship, they turned the compliment the other way: And now the planet or Luminary was called after the Hero; I suppose, the better to accustom the people, even in the act of Planet-worship, to this new adoration. Diodorus, in the passage quoted a little before, having told us that the Sun and Moon were the first Gods of Egypt, adds, THE FIRST OF WHICH, THEY CALLED OSIRIS, AND THE OTHER ISIS i. But this was the general practice. So the Ammonites called the Sun, Moloch; the Syrians, Adad; the Arabs, Dionysius; the Affvrians, Belus; the Persians, Mithra; the Phœnicians, Saturn; the Carthaginians, Hercules; and the Palmyrians, Elegabalus k. Again, the Moon, by the Phrygians was called Cybele, or the mother of the Gods; by the Athenians, Minerva; by the Cyprians, Venus; by the Cretans, Diana; by the Sicilians, Proserpine; by others, Hecate, Bellonia, Urania, Vesta, Lucinia<sup>1</sup>, &c. Philo Byblius, in Eusebius, explains this practice: "It is remark-" able (fays he) that they [the ancient idolaters] " imposed on the ELEMENTS, and on those parts of " nature which they esteemed Gods, the NAMES OF "THEIR KINGS: For the natural Gods, which they " acknowledged, were only the Sun, Moon, Pla-" nets, Elements, and the like; they being, now,

h Εξής, φησίν, ἀπό Γένες Χρηθήναι αυθις σεαίδας θιηθές, εξς 📆. δνόμαλα Φῶς κỳ Πῦς, κỳ Φλόξ. ἔτος Φησίο, ἐκ σισκατιιδῆς ξύλων εῦςον αύς, κή την χεήσιν εδιδαζαν. Ευςεύ præp. Evang. l.i. c. 10.

- Υπολαβεῖν εθ δεθς αἰδιυς τε ης σερατυς, τον τε Ηλιοι κή Σελά-

την, ων τον μεν Όσιειν, την δε "Ισιν ονομάσαι. 1. i.

k See Macrob. Saturn. 1. i. c. 17. & feq.

<sup>1</sup> See Apul. Met.

"in the humour of having Gods of both classes, the MORTAL and the IMMORTAL "."

3. As a further proof that Hero-worship was thus superinduced upon the planetary, let me add a very fingular circumstance in the first formation of STATUES, confecrated to the Hero-Gods; Of which circumstance, both ancient n and modern o writers have been at a loss to assign a reason. It is, that these first Statues were not of buman form, but co-NICAL and PYRAMIDAL. Thus the Scholiast, on the Vespæ of Aristophanes, tells us, that the Statues of Apollo and Bacchus were conic pillars, or Obelisks P: and Pausanias, that the Statue of Jupiter Meilichius represented a Pyramid 1: That of the Argive Juno did the same, as appears from a verse of Phoronis r, quoted by Clemens, intimating, that these pyramidal columns were the first Statues of the Gods: And this practice was univerfal, as well amongst the early Barbarians as Greeks. Now it is well known that the Ancients represented the rays of Light under pillars of this form: And we find, from the fragment of Sanchoniatho, that Usous confecrated two columns to to the Wind and Fire: Hence, the erecting them as representatives of their Hero-gods shews how These fucceeded to the titles, rights, and honours, of the natural and celestial Deities.

m Ἐξαιεέτως δε κ) όπο των σφειέεων βασιλέων, τοῖς κοσμικοῖς τοιχείοις, καί τισι των νομιζομένων θεων τὰς ὀνομασίας ἐπέθεσαν, φυσικες δε, ήλιον κ) σελήνην, κ) τες λοιπές ωλανήτας ἀς έςας, κ) τὰ τοιχεῖα, κ) τὰ τέτοις συναφή Θεες μόνες ἐγίνωσκον. ὥς' αὐτοῖς τὰς μὲν θνήθες, τὰς δε ἀθανάτες θεες ξί). Præp. Evang. 1.i. c. 9.

<sup>See Clem. Alex. Strom. 1. i. p. 348. Par. Ed.
See Spencer de Leg. Heb. Rit. 1. ii. c. 28. fect. 3.</sup> 

P Πεὸ τῶν θυςῶν ἔθω είχον κίσιας εἰς ὀξύ λόγοιλας, ὧς ἰδελίσκες ἱδεύειν εἰς τιμμμὶ ἀπόλλανω Αγυμίως—ἰδίως δὲ φασὶν αὐτὰς ἔῦ ἀπόλλανω· οί δὲ Διονύσα· οί δὲ ἀμφοῖν. Σφ. ver. 870.

<sup>9</sup> In Corin. p. 132.

Ηςης Αςγείης, η ς έμμασι κ) θυσάνοισι,
 Πζώτη ἐκόσμιζεν σεεὶ κίονα μακρὸν ἀνάρχης,

To explain this matter at large would require a Volume: It is sufficient to have given this hint; which, if pursued, might perhaps direct us to the clew of that hitherto inexplicable labyrinth of Pagan Mythology. The Reader sees clearly, by what has been already said, that this unheeded, but very natural way of superinducing Hero-worship on the Planetary, easily confounded the different species: and afforded a plausible pretence for the two Parties mentioned above, to make either, symbolical of the other.

Here matters rested: and the vulgar Faith seems to have remained a long time undiffurbed. But as the Age grew refined, and the Greeks became inquisitive and learned, the common Mythology began to give offence. The speculative, and more delicate were shocked at the absurd and immoral stories of their Gods; and scandalized, to find such things make an authentic part of their history. It may indeed be thought matter of wonder how fuch stories, taken up in a barbarous age, came not to be dropt as the age grew more knowing; from mere abhorrence of their indecencies, and shame of their absurdities. Without doubt, this had been their fortune, but for an unlucky circumstance: The great POETS of Greece who had most contributed to refine the public tafte and manners, and were now grown into a kind of facred authority, had fanctified these filly tales in their Wittings, which Time had now configned to immortality.

Vulgar Paganism, therefore, in such an Age as this, lying open to the attacks of curious and inquisitive men, would not, we may well think, be long at rest. It is true, Free-thinking then lay under great discouragements. To insult the Religion of one's Country, which is now the mark of learned distinction, was esteemed in the ancient world a

brand of public infamy. Yet Free-thinkers there were: Who (as is their use) together with the public worthip of their Country, threw off all reverence to Religion in general. Amongst these was Euhemerus, the Messenian; and, by what we can learn, the most distinguished. This man, in mere wantonness of heart, began his attacks on Religion, by divulging the fecret of the Mysteries. But as it was capital to do this directly and professedly, he contrived to cover his perfidy and malice by the intervention of a kind of Utopian Romance. He pretended, that in a certain City, to which he came in his travels, he found this GRAND SE-CRET, of the Gods being dead men deified, preserved in their facred writings; and confirmed by monumental records, inscribed to the Gods themselves; who were there faid to be interred. So far was not amiss. But then, in the genuine spirit of his tribe, who never cultivate a truth but in order to graft a lye upon it, he pretended, that DEAD MORTALS were the FIRST GODS: And that an imaginary Divinity in these early Heroes and Conquerors created the idea of a superior Power; and introduced the practice of religious worship samongst men. Hence indignant Anti-

S Ευήμες Τό, δ όπικληθείς "Αθε Φ, Φησίν στ' ην ἄτακί Δι ανθρά πων βίω, οι περιβρόρισι των άλλων Ισχύι τε κό σωνέσει ώς ε πρὸς τὰ ὑπ ωντών κελευόμθηα πάιθας βιδν, πεδάζοθες μείζου Του θαυμασμέ κό σεμνότη Φ τυχείν, ανέπλασαν περὶ ωντές ὑπες άλλεσάν τινα κό βείαν δύναμιν, είθεν κό τος άλλοις ἐνομίδη πσαν θεόι. Sext. Empir. adv. Mathem. The learned reader fees, that our Atheift is true to his Sect, that endeavours to verify the fundamental principle of his Sect, that FEAR first made Gods, even in that very instance where the contrary passion seems to have been at its height, the time when men made Gods of their deceased Benefactors. A little matter of address hides the shame of so perverse a piece of malice. He represents those Founders of Society, and Fathers of their Country, under the idea of destructive Conquerors, who by

quity concurred in giving him the proper name of ATHEIST: which, however, he would hardly have escaped, though he had done no more than divulge the Secret of the Mysteries; and had not poisoned his discovery with this impious and foreign addition, so contrary to the true spirit of that Secret.

This detection had been long dreaded by the orthodox Protectors of pagan Worship: And they were provided of a temporary defence in their intricate, and properly perplexed, fystem of SYMBOLIC adoration. But this would do only to stop a breach for the present, till a better could be provided; and was too weak to ftand long alone, against so violent an attack. The Philosophers, therefore, now took up the defence of Paganism, where the PRIESTS had left it: And, to the other's Symbols. added their own Allegories, for a fecond cover to the abfurdities of the ancient Mythology t. For, all the genuine Sects of Philosophy, as we have obferved, were fleddy Patriots. LEGISLATION making one effential part of their Philosophy. And, to legislate without the foundation of a national Religion, was, in their opinion, building caftles in the air. So that we are not to wonder, they took the alarm; and opposed these Insultors of the public Worship with all their vigour. But, as they

mere force and fear had brought men into subjection and slavery.

rso, Minucius Felix—Zenon, interpretando Junonem Aëra, Jovem Cœlum, Neptunum Mare, Ignem esse Vulcanum, et ceteros similiter vulgi Deos elementa esse monstrando, publicum arguit graviter et revincit errorem. Eadem sere Chrysippus, vim divinam, rationalem naturam, et mundum interim, et satalem necessitatem Deum credit; Zenonemque interpretatione Physiologiæ in Hesiodi, Homeri, Orpheigue carminibus imitatur. Babylonio etiam Diogeni disciplina est exponendi et disserendi, Jovis partum et ortum Minervos et hoc genus cetera, rerum vocabula esse non Deorum. Ocaavius, c. xix.

never lost fight of their proper character, they so contrived, that the desence of the national Religion should terminate in a recommendation of their philosophic speculations. Hence, their support of the public worship, and their evasion of Euhemerus's charge, turned upon this proposition, "That the whole ancient Mythology was noother than the vehicle of Physical, Moral, and divine knowledge." And, to this it is that the learned Eusebius refers, where he says, "That a new race "of men refined their old gross Theology; and "gave it an honester look; and brought it nearer "to the truth of things"."

However, this proved a troublesome work; and, after all, little effectual for the fecurity of men's PRIVATE MORALS; which, the example of the licentious flory according to the letter, would not fail to influence, how well foever the allegoric interpretation was calculated to cover the PUBLIC HONOUR of Religion: So that the more ethical of the Philosophers grew peevish with what gave them fo much trouble, and answered so little to the interior of religious practice: this made them break out, from time to time, into hasty resentments against their capital Poets; unsuitable, one would think, to the dignity of the Authors of fuch noble recondite truths, as they would perfuade us to believe of them. Hence it was that PLATO banished Homer from his Republic: and that Pythagoras, in one of his extramundane adventures, faw both Homer and Hestod doing penance in Hell, and hung up there, for examples, to bleach and purify from the groffness and pollution of their ideas.

Υ Τοιωύτα ήν τὰ ở σαλαιάς Θεολογίας, ην μελαθαλόνλες τέσι τινές, χθὲς κὰ σκώνν ἐπιφυέλλες λογικώτεςόν τε φιλοσοφείν αυχθίνλες, τὸν δη φυσικωλέρων τὰ σερὶ Θεῶν ἱς ορίας δόξαν εἰσηγήσαλο, σεμνολέρας ἔυρεσιολογίας τοῖς μύθοις σεροσεπινόνσαλες. Prap. Evang. 1. ii. c. 6.

The first of these Allegorizers, as we learn from Laertius w, was Anauagoras; who, with his friend Metrodorus, turned Homer's Mythology into a system of Ethics. Next came Hercelides Ponticus, and, of the same fables made as good a system of Physics: which, to shew us with what kind of spirit it was composed, he intitled 'Antifricus τῶν κατ' κῶτε ['Ομέρε] βλαστριμούλων. And last of all, when the necessity became more pressing, Proclus undertook to shew that all Homer's Fables were no other than physical, ethical, and moral Allegories. For we are to observe, that the Philosophers invented and revived this way of interpretation, as at two different times, so on two different occasions.

1. It was invented to encounter fuch men as Eubemerus, who attempted to overthrow all Religion. by this pretended fact, That the first Worfnip was paid to dead men deliked; which they supported on a real one, namely, that the greater Gods of Greece were only dignified Mortals; as appeared from Homer and the other early Greek Poets: whose writings being become a kind of Scripture in the popular Religion, the Defenders of the common faith had it not in their power to REPUDIATE their fables as only the idle visions of a poetic fancy: Nothing was left but to SPIRITUALIZE the fense, by allegorical interpretations. And this proved fo lucky an expedient, that, at the same time that it covered their fables from the attacks of their adversaries, it added new reverence and veneration both to them and their Authors \*.

w Lib. ii. Anaxag. vit.

<sup>\*</sup> So Tertullian. Ipsa quoque vulgaris supersitio communis Idololatrice, cum in simulacris de nominilus et fabulis veterum mortuorum pudet, ad interpretationem naturalium resugit, et dedecus suum ingenio obumbrai, sigurans Jovem in substantiam servidam, et Junnem ejus in aeream, &c. Adv Marc. l. i.

2. What These began for the fake of their THEO-LOGERS, their fuccessors continued for the sake of their Theology. For it is to be noted, that the first Christian Apologists took up so much of the argument of Euhemerus and his fellows, as concerned the real nature and original of the greater Gods of Greece. And as they had difencumbered this truth of the false consequence with which those audacious Freethinkers had loaded it, they were enabled to urge it with fuperior force. But if the CHRISTIANS added new vigour to this attack, the PHILOSOPHERS became still more animated in their defence: for they hated this new Sect as an enemy equally to the Philosophy and to the Religion of Greece. And their accidental advantages in the application of this revived method of allegory, were not inferior to their most studied arts of improving it: For their christian Adversaries could with no grace object to a way of interpretation which they themselves had just borrowed from Paganism, to SPIRITUALIZE, forfooth, their facred Scriptures, which the Philosophers had long used with more pretence and better judgment, to make theirs, REASONABLE.

But here we are to take notice of this difference between the Philosophic Allegorizers BEFORE, and those AFTER the time of Christ. The first were principally employed in giving a physical y or moral interpretation of the fables; the latter, a theological. As we may see in the case of PLUTARCH; who was both Priest and Philosopher in one. His famous tract, of Isis and Osiris, is directly written

y So Arnobius. Vulnerari, wexari, bella inter se gerere surialium memorantur ardore discriminum: Vobis illa est descriptio voluptati, atque ut scriptorum tantam desendatis audaciam, allegorias res illas, et naturalis scientiæ mentimini esse do-Etrinas. Adv. Gent. l. iv. p. 150. Ed. quarto.

to support the national Religion, which had just taken the alarm, and not without reason. His purpose in it is to shew, That all its MULTIFORM worship was only an address to the Supreme Being, under various names and covers. But then ancient history, which acquaints us with the origine of their Gods, flood in his way. He denies therefore, what these histories invariably attest: He calls Euhemerus, who inforced their evidence, an Impostor z; and hath many other evasions to elude fuch circumstances as are most decisive. Thus, when he cannot deny, that, what is recorded of their Gods shews them to be subject to human passions, he will not yet allow the inference for their bumanity; because the Genii and Demons are agitated by the like passions a. Thus again, the bewailing and lamenting gestures, in many of their eftablished Rites, which looked so like mourning for the dead, fignified, he affures us, no more than an allegorical representation of corn forem and buried b. In this manner, the postulate having sup-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> — `Ος αὐτὸς [Εὐημες®-] ἀιτίγραζα συιθελς ἀπίς ε τζ ἀιυπάςκθε μυθιλογίας, οτάσαν ἀθείτηθα καθασκεδάνυσε τῆς εἰκεμένης, τές εγμιζομένες δελς στάθας ὁμαλῶς 2½ γγάζας, εἰς ὅιομα Στςατηγῶν τζ Ναυαρ-

χων η Βασιλέω, ως δη σάλαι γείοιοτων. p. 641.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Βέχλιον ε΄ν, οι τα σξι τον Τυφώνα κο Όσιειν ης Ίσιν ις σεμώλια, μότε διών παθήμαζα, μήτε ανθρωπών, άλλα Δαιμόνων μεγάλων ε΄) τομίζοθες, ως κο Ηλάτων κο Πυθαγόξας κο Εενοκράτας η Χερόπιππων, έπόμενοι τοις πάλαι Θεολόγοις, έδωμειειτέρες με ανθρώπων γεθνέται λέγμοι κο πολλή τη δυνάμει την φύσιν υπερφέρουθας ήμων, το δε δείνο μι αμιγές, ε'δε άκεριον έχουθας, άλλα κο ψυχύς φύσει κο σώμαλω αιδιέσει έν συνειλαχός ήδουμο δεχομέτην κο ποίον κο όσα ταυταις έγκενμένα ταις μεθαδολαίς πάθη, τὰς με μελλον, τὸς δε ὅτθον ἐπιαράτθει γίνουλαι γδ ως ἐν ἀνθρώποις, κὸ Δαίμοσιν, ἀρείης Διμεφορα κο κακίας. p. 642.

b This ingenious conceit of Seed-corn did not escape the Abbé Pluche (for every man's property is his treasure, and he bringeth forth out of it, as he hath occasion, things old and new) who in his Histoire du Ciel, hath judiciously employed it for the soundation of a reformed system on this matter; which, how-

ported the allegories; the allegories come, in good

time, to the affistance of the postulate.

Thus ftood the matter in the ancient World. Let us fee now what use the Moderns have made of what they found recorded there. Our *Treetbinkers*, such as *Toland* and his tribe, have revived the old rank doctrine of Euhemerus. And this was natural; and to the purpose of their cause. But our *Religionists* generally, have not been so happy in the choice of their arms, nor in their sagacity of distinguishing their friends. The excellent G. J. Vossius, to mention him amongst a multitude, hath, in his very learned collection of *Gentile Theology*, gone, bena side, into the old pagan method of allegarizing their Theology; as if it were doing service to true Religion to shew, that the Pagan Idolatry was, at bottom, tolerably reasonable.

It is true, a late ingenious Person seems to have understood his subject better, and to know where

ever, brings us to the fame place, by a back way; and ends

in this, that the Gods were not dead men deified.

See a Track called, The origin of Idulatry, and reasons of Heathenism, by Toland. Our PANTHEISTIC Philosopher's understanding had so strong a bias to impiety, that it seemed rather a natural sympathy than an acquired habit (though he had that too) which drew him to it at all distances. Hear how autwardly he reprefents Eukemerus's fystem to us: and yet he labours hard to fet it off. The FIRST Idelatry (fays he) did not proceed, as is commonly supposed, from the beauty, or order, or influence of the STARS. But men observing Books to perish [before their invention] by fire, worms, or rettenness; and Iron, Brass, and Marble, not less subject to violent hands or the injuries of the weather, they IMPOSED ON THE STARS, as the only everlasting monuments, the proper names of their Heroes, or of semething memorable in their History. p. 74. All this, his predecessors, the Freethinkers of Antiquity, who knew how to express themselves, informed us of when they faid, That Star-worship was only symbolical of Hero-worship; and, consequently, of later date: the thing they aimed at, to induce their conclusion, that therefore Religion was a political invention.

all this tends; I mean the learned Writer of the Letters concerning Mythology. We have observed, that the ancient defenders of Paganism had by their Symbols and Allegories refolved the Hero-gods into the Elementary; and these again, into the various attributes of the first Cause. The ancient FATHERS of the Church are very copious in exposing this subterfuge: In which fervice they employed all that was found in the fystem of Eubemerus; that is to fay, That the Greater Gods of Greece and Rome, the Dii majorum Gentium, were Dead men deified. And I have endeavoured throughout this work to support their Cause. There are hardly now, I believe, two opinions on this matter, amongst knowing men. But the learned Author of the Inquiry into the life and writings of Homer attempts, in these Letters, (I presume as an exercise of his wit) to bring us back again to the old Mumpsimus. He faw, I suppose, the neceffary connexion between Allegories and ideal Gods: between These, and no more than a shadowy Idolatry: And therefore, in honour of Antiquity, hath laid it down as an axiom, That the powers producing, and parts composing the Universe, were their GRIATER Gods d; or the Dii majorum Gentium. This, the ingenious Writer calls, the grand Key of Alphada yes.

dP. 409, of the Letters concerning Mythelogy.

X 4

that the admirers of the wildom of prophase Antiquity, are not fo favourable to that of favourable the first to laugh at what Divines call the nount street in Scripture propheties. And yet they make the greatest part of pagan suffilm to consist in the use and invention of nounterests: "Witness that the learned writer the looke "view you have already had of the rise of things, and greatest ment of the world from Orpheus, in the defectation of the rise and from Hefred in his borrowed Theogony: and still platear in the nounter moral of Prometheus, as significing either the divine Providence in the formation of the world, and puties cularly of man, or human soresight perpetually on the

As these Letters seem chiefly to be written in opposition to what is here, and elsewhere throughout this work, advanced concerning the rise, progress, and various fortunes, of ancient Idolatry; as well as in favour of the now exploded interpretation of Mythology; invented, and kept improving, as we say by the early, middle, and later Philosophers, to hide the deformities of vulgar Polytheism, I shall beg leave to consider what he hath to say in support of such an undertaking.

Now against my various reasoning in confutation of this System, I find not so much as one argument opposed; and in support of the System, but one; which is this, "Euhemerus and his FOLLOWERS, ere "we join with them in mortalizing the first Divini-"ties, must satisfy us, Why the Poetical Sages, the "Instructors of mankind, termed their grand "Work, the basis of their doctrine, not only a THE-"ogony, or an account of the birth and pedigree " of the Gods, but a Cosmogony, or an account of " the birth and creation of the World? Or, plainer "ftill, a Cosmopoeia, a making or framing of " the Universe? The Platonic Philosophy had no "hand in the Cosmogonies, or histories of the " Creation written by Taaut or Thoth, by Linus, " by Orpheus, &c. It was plain, therefore, the Al-" legory did not come too late, &c f."

If this Eubemerus supposed, as it appears he did, that the first pagan Divinities were mortal Men, he would have found it difficult to answer this ingenious objection. But his Followers, here hinted at,

<sup>&</sup>quot;for the necessaries and conveniencies of life." p. 120—1. The difference is, The pagan double sense connects together two things that are foreign to one another in the constitution of Nature: The scripture double sense connects together two things that are as nearly related, as the various parts of one moral Dispensation.

P. 211, 212.

who suppose no such thing, but have evinced the contrary, will find no difficulty at all. For they hold is, that the first Gods of Greece were the heavenly Bodies. And if the makers of these Cosmogonies, such as Thoth, Linus, and Orpheus, held the same, then their Theogonies, or accounts of the birth and pedigrees of these Gods, could be no other than Cosmogonies, or accounts of the birth and creation of the world; these Gods being parts of it.

But things feem here to be confounded. These Cosmogonies have just as much, and no more, to do with Platonic allegories, than the elements of speech

with the ornaments of Rhetoric.

There are two errors likewise, in this matter, which the learned Mythologist seems to have laboured under. The one is, that Euhemerus was the Inventor of the mortalizing system: Whereas, I had shewn, it was taught in all the Mysteries long before Euhemerus was born. He, indeed, maliciously carried it much further than the Mysteries; He made planetary worship symbolical of the Heroic. And from thence, inferred the political origin of Religion: for which, he passed with Antiquity, and very justly, for an Atheist. Whereas the Mysteries, as we see from the fragment of Sanchoniatho, kept these two species of Idolatry distinct; and assigned the proper order of time to each of them.

The other error this learned Person falls into, is his supposing, that these modern followers of Euhemerus, against whom he writes, hold all the first, as well as last, Gods of Greece to have been mortal men: Whereas they distinguish between the Gods of civilized and uncivilized Greece: The first, they suppose to have been heavenly bodies; and the lat-

ter only, dead men deified.

<sup>&</sup>amp; See above.

See above, and likewife p. 168 of the first part of this vol.

From

From cenfuring the Learning of Euhemerus's Followers, the ingenious Author proceeds to cenfure their Morals. "It is not easy (he says) to as-" certain what should make some warm Ecclesia-"ftics, for the wifer are far above fuch weakness, " fo angry at the Allegories of ancient Poets, now, "when all danger from their Deities is over. Of "old, indeed, when Temples and Revenues be-" longed to them; when wealth, and Dignities of the " Church were annexed to the allegorical Devotion, "and vested in its Teachers, no wonder the good "FATHERS should fulminate against the wild and "impious Worship. But now, when the struggle " is long fince over, when the Father of Gods " and men has not so much as a lamb offered, nor " his Daughter [i. e. Minerva or Wisdom] a fingle "grain of incense burnt upon her altar for near a "thousand years, it is hard to tell what should " awake this preposterous zeal, or make them so ea-" ger to mertalize the Emplems of Antiquity. Is "there not, as I was hinting, fome infection in the " case? -- Has not the reading the FLAMING INVEC-"TIVES i of the primitive Fathers, who were actu-" ally in the struggle, a little infested their Follow-" ers with the same firey spirit and INDECENT LAN-46 GUAGE k."

i The ingenious Writer feems to lie under a fmall mistake. Though faming invedives may perhaps be thought characteriflic of the FATHERS' zeal, the terms are not here in their place. They referved their investives for a better occasion, to fulminate the malice of their Enemies, and the follies of their Friends. On this point, viz. the mortalizing the emblems of antiquity, I can assure him, they appeared much at their ease; and more disposed to quibble than to rail; as he may see by one of the most serious of them, and who least understood raillery when he was pressed, I mean St. Austin; who in his consutation of Varro and his emblems, could afford to be thus jocular: "Sed, "hee omnia inquit [Varro] referentur ad mundum; videatne " potius ad immundum." Civ. Dei, 1. vii. c. 27.

This indecent language is to be found in the fecond volume of the Divine Legation; where it is faid, that the Ancients adopted into the number of their greater Gods, Ravishers, Adulterers, Pathics, Vagabonds, Thieves, and Murderers 1. But it is pleafant to hear this learned person talk of decency to a fet of Phantoms, Emblems, and Symbols; for fuch he efteems these Greater Gods to be; and yet obferve it so little to the Ministers of the Christian Religion. For he is at a lofs, the Reader fees, to account for their warmth, where their private interest is not concerned. And in feeking for the cause of it, when he cannot fix it on their averice and embition, rather than allow them a motive becoming their character and office, he will throw it upon their pelfions and prejudices. He supposes, they catched the infection from the Fathers, whose worldly interests, he imagines, were much concerned in the quarrel. But I have that opinion of his candour and love of virtue as to believe, that he will be pleased to find his suspicions ill grounded: And that the Ecclefiaftics, who engage so warmly in this question, do it on important reasons, becoming their character of Ministers of the Truth.

The Bible represents ancient Idolatry, in the most odious colours; and the whole Gentile World as given up to its delusions. A species of modern Mythologists, hinted at above, and whom a late French writer hath well described m, had endea-

Book IV. fect. iv.

m—Au commencement du Seizieme Siecle quelques-uns des Savans, qui contribuérent au retablissement des lettres, etoient, dit en, Pasens dans le coeur, plus encore par PEDENTERIE, que par libertinage: ensorte qu'il n'eût pas tenu à eux de ramener le culte des Dieux d'Homere et de Virgile—ils emplosoient ce qu'ils avoient de litérature et d'esprit, pour donner au l'aganisse un tour plausible, et en former un système moins insense. Ils avouoient que la Mythologie etoit insoutenable voured

voured to evade this charge, by borrowing the defences of the ancient Philosophers; who allegorized the fables of the popular Religion, to screen it from the contempt of the more knowing Vulgar; as Learning, at one time, and Christianity, at another, had feverally shaken the Seat of Superstition". In those Allegories, all the national Gods were reduced to mere Symbols, expressive of the Attributes of the first Cause: and, consequently, the Scripture-charge against the Gentiles, of worshiping the Creature for the Creator, rendered groundless, or at least, uncandid. In this state and reprefentation of things, fome Ecclefiastics have thought it of their office to MORTALIZE these pretended emblems of Antiquity; and to shew, that their greater national Gods were dead men deified: and, consequently, that their worshipers were real Idolaters; and of the worst fort too, as they frequently had for their objects the worst kind of men.

But so little of this matter entered into the learned Author's views, that he says, "This, which "was formerly a grand religious controversy, is now turned to a point of pure speculation. What, in the days of Polytheism, raised the indignation of the Priests, and inflamed the rival zeal of the Fathers of the Church, now raises a little fauabble amongst the Antiquaries, as a question of mere curiosity: to wit, whether all the Gods of Antiquity were not mortal men "."

Now, if a man will needs suppose, that where the Clergy have no oblique and interested designs, they

prise à la lettre: mais, en même tems, elle contenoit, selon eux, sous l'Embleme des sissions les prosondeurs de la physique, de la morale et de la Theologie. Vie de L'Emp. Julien. p. 48—9.

n See p. 307, of this part. P. 208.

<sup>2</sup> 

have no *reasonable ones*, he will be often out in his reckoning: And (what to be fure is greatly to be lamented) unequal to the office of a Censor on their Manners.

After all, perhaps we understand the learned Writer as little, as he appears to have understood us, if we think him in earnest. The whole of his Letters, if one may judge by hints dropt here and there, feems to be a mere sportive exercise of Wit; and just such an encomium on the WISDOM OF THE Ancients as Erasmus's was, on the folly of the Moderns. It is certain, at least, that in the profecution of his argument, his chief concern is for FICTION and its interests. Thus, in one page, he tells us, "That this eager zeal to mortalize these emblems of Antiquity is destructive of all true Poetry P." And in another, "That this prevailing prosaic taste has neither dignity of manners, nor strength of genius, nor extent of fancy 4." But he explains himself more fully, where speaking of Symbols and ALLEGORIES, and the inseparable as well as accidental marks by which they may be unravelled, he illustrates his subject by Ab. Pluche's Hypothesis: Which, however, in feveral places, he treats for what it is, an idle and a groundless fancy. "Sym-" bols (fays he) carry natural marks that strike a fa-" gacious mind, and lead it, by degrees, to their real "meaning. A hint in one author brightens the " obscurities in many others; as one single obser-" fervation of Macrobius proved the clue to Abbé "Pluche's (how justly I fay not) to unravel the "whole mystery of Egyptian, Assyrian, and Grecian Gods r." He had no occasion to consider

P. 215. 9 P. 214.

r As our learned Critic would immertalize the Pagan Deities in reverence to the Classics, fo this Abbé Pluche (of whom he speaks with so much honour) has attempted to draw

how justly, if he was in jest. Otherwise, a man would see, that the justness of unravelling depended on the reality of the Clue: Which, too, tho' dignified with this name, is indeed no other than a number of odd ends, that wanted to be made consistent, rather than to be unravelled.

But as if all this had not been enough to shew us that his concern was not for Truth but Fiction, he gravely professes to credit all Bacon's visions, as the genuine Wisdom of the Ancients, which every body else admires as the sportive effort of modern wit. As he is in so pleasant an humour he may not be displeased to hear the Determination of Doctor Rabelais upon this question, who thus addresses the Allegorizers of his time, "Croyez-vous, en vostre soy, qu'oncques Homere, escripvant l'Iliade & l'Odyssée, pensast és allegories lesquelles de luy ont calestreté Plutarche, Heraclide de Ponticq, Eustatie, Phornute, et ce que d'iceulz Politian's ha descrobé?

- "Si le croyez, vous n'approchez ne de piedz, ne de mains à mon opinion; qui decrete icelles
- « aussi peu avoir esté songées de Homere, que d'Ovide en ses Metamorphoses, les Sacremens
- " de l'Evangile, lesquelz ung Freie Lubin, vray
- "croquelardon, s'est efforcé demonstrer si d'ad-

" venture il rencontroit gens ausii folz que luy."

them out of their mortal flate, in order to cover the difgraces of Popeny; to which that fuperfittion is obnoxious from the parallels between Saint and Hero-worthip; and by a new fystem, begot by a delirious imagination on the dream of a lethargic Pedant\*, to make the Dii mojorum Gentium the mere cyphers of an ancient Alphabet.

\* This facetious Satyrist had here in his eye those very Mythologists of the fixteenth Century, whom the learned Author of the life of Julian, quoted above, so very justly censures.

And thus much for this *grand Key of Mythology*, as this learned Writer is pleafed to call his Work <sup>t</sup>.

To return to the Patrons of the other extreme, That the heavenly bodies were only Symbols of the Hero-Gods. Having thus shewn, the worship of the elements to be prior to that of dead men, I have not only overthrown this argument, for the proof of the atheistic notion of the origin of Religion, but likewife the notion itself. For it (as our adversaries own) the worship of dead men was the first religious institution after entering into civil fociety; and if (as I have proved) the worship of the heavenly bodies preceded that of dead men; the confequence is, that Religion was in use before the Civil Magistrate was in Being. But I need not our adversaries' concession for this consequence; having proved from ancient testimony, that planetary worship was the only Idolatry long before Civil Society was known; and continued to be fo, by all unpolicied nations, long after.

II. I come, in the next place, to direct Fast: from whence it appears, that the Lawgiver, or

Civil Magistrate, did not invent Religion.

Here the Atheist's gross prevarication ought not to pass uncensured.—From the notoriety of the Magistrate's care of Religion, he would conclude it to be his invention: And yet, that very Antiquity which tells him this, as plainly and fully tells him this other; namely, that Religion was not invented by him: For, look through all Greek, Roman, and Barbarous Antiquity; or look back on what we have extracted from thence in the second section of the foregoing book, and it will appear, that not one single Lawgiver ever found a people, how wild or unimproved soever, without a Religion.

gion, when he undertook to civilize them. On the contrary, we see them all, even to the Lawgivers of the Thracians and Americans, addressing themfelves to the favage Tribes, with the credentials of that God who was there professedly acknowledged and adored. But the truth of this will be farther seen from hence: It appears by the bistory of the Lawgivers, by the fayings recorded of them, and by the fragments of their writings yet remaining, that they perceived the error and mischief of the gross idolatries practifed by those People, whom they reduced into Society; and yet, that they never fet upon reforming them: From whence we reasonably conclude, that they found the People in possession of a Religion which they could not unfettle; and fo were forced to comply with inveterate prejudices. For, that they were willing and defirous to have reformed what they found, appears not only from the Proems to their Laws, spoken of above, but from the testimony of one of the most knowing Writers of Antiquity, I mean Plutarch; who, in his Treatife of Superstition, speaking of the intractable temper of the People, fays, they ran headlong into all the follies which the makers of Graven images propagated; and in the mean time, turned a deaf ear to their Lawgivers, who endeavoured to inform them better': and this forced even Solon himself to establish the Temple-worship of Venus the Prostitute w. But the reform was seen to be fo impossible, that Plato lays it down as an axiom in his Republic, That nothing ought to be changed in the received Religion which the Lawgiver finds already established: and that a man

w wa δήμε Αφεοδίτης. Athenæi Deip. 1. xiii.

Φιλοσόφων δὲ κὰ ΠΟΛΙΤΙΚΩΝ ἀνδεῶν καλαφρονῶστη, ἐποδεικινθηών τὰν τὰ Θεὰ σεμιότηλα μελὰ χεης ότηλ≫ κὰ μεγαλιφροσύνης, μελὰ βίας κὰ κηδεμοιίας.

must have lost his understanding to think of fuch a project. All they could do, therefore, when they could not purify the Soul of Religion, was more firmly to constitute the Body of it. And this they did by NATIONAL RITES AND CEREMONIES. Indeed, in course of time, though insensibly, the genius of the Religion, as we observed before x, followed that of the civil Policy; and so grew better and purer, as it did in Rome; or more corrupt and abominable, as it did in Syria. But had the Legislators given an entire NEW Religion, in the manner they gave LAWS, we should have found fome of those, at least, nearly approaching to the purity of natural Religion. But as we fee no fuch, we must conclude they found Religion, and did not make it.

On the whole then, I have proved, what the most judicious Hooker was not ashamed to believe, before me, That " a politique use of Religion there is. "Men fearing God are thereby a great deal more " effect ally, than by positive Laws restrayned, " from doing evil; inafmuch as those Laws have no "further power than over our outward actions only; " whereas unto mens' inward cogitations, unto the " privie intents and motions of their hearts, Reli-"gion ferveth for a bridle. What more favage, "wilde, and cruell than man, if he see himselfe " able, either by fraude to over-reach, or by power "to over-beare, the Laws whereunto he should be "fubject? Wherefore in fo great boldness to of-"fend, it behoveth that the World should be held "in awe, not by a VAINE SURMISE, but a TRUE "APPREHENSION of fomewhat, which no man " may think himselfe able to withstand. This is "THE POLITIQUE USE OF RELIGION Y." Thus far

x See p. 98. of the first part.

y Eccl. Pol. Book V. fest. ii. Vol. II.

this great man; where he takes notice how certain Atheists of his time, by observing this use of Religion to Society, were fortified in their folly, in believing Religion to have been invented by politicians to keep the World in awe. An absurdity, I persuade myself, now so thoroughly exposed, as to be henceforth deemed fit only to go in rank with the tales of Nurses, and the dreams of Freethinkers.

I have now at length gone through the two first Propositions:

- 1. That the inculcating the doctrine of a future state of Rewards and Punishments, is necessary to the well-being of Civil Society.
- 2. That all mankind, especially the most wise and learned nations of Antiquity, have concurred in Believing, and teaching, that this doctrine was of such use to Civil Society.

The next Volume begins with the proof of the third; namely,

3. That the doctrine of a future state of Rewards and Punishments, is not to be found in, nor did make part of, the Mosaic dispensation.

Hitherto we have been forced to move flowly, to grope our way in the dark, through the thick confusion of many irrational Religions, and mad schemes of Philosophy, independent of, and inconsistent with one another: Where the labour of the search, perhaps, has been much greater to the Author, than the pleasure will be to the Reader,

in finding this chaos reduced to some kind of order; the Principles developed, from whence the endless diversity and contradiction have arisen; and the various use that may be made of these discoveries for our demonstration of the truth of revealed Religion.

We now emerge into open day:

" Major rerum mihi nascitur ordo,

" Majus opus moveo.

And having gotten the PROMISED LAND in view, the labour will be much easier, as the discoveries will be more important, and the subject infinitely more interesting: For having now only one single System and Dispensation to explain, consistent in all its parts, and absolute and perfect in the Whole, which though, by reason of the prosound and sublime views of its Author, these perfections may not be very obvious, yet, if we have but the happiness to enter rightly, we shall go on with ease, and the prospect will gradually open and enlarge itself, till we see it lost again in that IMMENSITY from whence it first arose.

Full of these hopes, and under the auspices of these encouragements, let us now shift the Scene from Gentile to Jewish Antiquity; and prepare ourselves for the opening of a more august and solemn Theatre.

The end of the Third Book.



N.B. Where the pages are only marked, Part i. is understood.

#### Α

A CADEMICS, fo called from holding their disputations in the Academy, ii. 120- Came from Socrates, ii. 115.

the Middle (by Arcefilaus) and the New (by Carneades,) ii.

116.

declined their master's feettical method of disputation, as understanding it to be only occasional; and therefore dogmatifed, ii. 122, 123.

the Middle and Now, had no real difference, and were mere feeptics from a pretended adherence to the true principles of the Socratic school, ii. 124, 125. See

SOCRATES.

rbo) in afferting that the Prophete, when found, was to be affented to, whereas the Prophete, when found, was thing was ever to be affented to, but the mind kept in an eternal suspense, ii. 116—119.

Alliance between Church and State can be produced only, by a FRE! CONVENTION and MUTUAL COMPACT, ii. 8.

is great preliminary and fundamental article, That the chure shall apply its utmost influence for the service of the State, and that the State shall support and protest the church, ii. 18

entered into by the State for preserving the purity, and pplying the influence of Religion in the best manner, andfor preventing the mischief that the church in her

indoendent state, might occasion, ii. 9-16.

entered into by the Charch folely for a secu-RIY FROM ALL EXTERIOR VIOLE CL, and not from the mtives of propagating the established religion by jorce, which would be unjust; or of procuring honours, riches and power, which would be impertinent, ii. 17. See CHURCH.

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- falfely reckons *Pomponatius* among those that deny the usefulness of Religion to Society, 26—34. See Pomponatius.
- fupports Plutarch's Thefis, that Superflition is worse than Atheism, 257.

C

CABIRI, the principal Hierophants or Ministers in the Mysteries,

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cred, the other open and vulgar; which gave birth to the Double-Doctrine, carried into Greece by the Philosophers, ii. 101-103.

- among the first who taught the immortality of the foul, not for speculation, but for the support of the Doctrine of a Future state, in order to secure That of a Provividence, to explain the ways of which the Metempsychosis was invented, ii. 228. See Soul, METEMPSYCHOSIS.

---- represented God as a Spirit diffusing itself thro' the world: teaching in a figurative fense, that GOD IS ALL THINGS, the Greeks drew the conclusion in a literal sense, that ALL THINGS ARE GOD, which produced the Athe-

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iffical Doctrine of the To a or Univerfal Nature, revived by Spinoza. —— were the Inventors of the Mysteries, which were carried into Greece by Cadmus and Inachus, 102, 138, 139, 202. See MYSTERIES. — taught dogmatically according to Tradition, and not scientifically, ii. 222, 223. their Wifdom so much extolled and mentioned by scripture confisted only in the Science of Legislation and Policy, ii. 222. --- carried not the other sciences to any great height, as appears by a fingular instance in Pythagoras, ii. Enthusiasm to be met with in great Conquerors, Legislators or Preachers of a new Religion, ii. 281. tempered always in Heroes with an equal share of craft and policy, ii. 281, 282. without it no great undertakings can ever fucceed, ii. 282, 284. ---- incapable alone to bring a defign to perfection, ii. 283. joined with policy in a Hero, great will be the fuccess of his undertakings ——Instances of it in Mahomet, Ignatius Loyola, and Oliver Crowwel, ii. 283-- extolled by Varro, ii. 286. Evidence for Revelation, EXTERNAL and INTERNAL.

—— External lies open to attacks—weakened by time and loss of memorials—cannot be supported without the

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Internal more perfect, demonstrative, perpetuated, always at hand --- requires a thorough knowledge of human nature, civil policy, and of the Mosaic and Christian dispensations, 1-4.

----- Internal of the Divine Legation of Moses, taken from the omission of the Doctrine of a future state, the

subject of this discourse, 5, 7.

FABLE of the Bees writ to prove private vices, publick benefits. — examined and confuted, 78-86.

FABLES Or antient Mythology contrived, as some think, by the Sages of old, for repositories of their mysterious wisdom, confequently (fay they) are natural, moral, and divine truths difguised, ii. 131, 306.

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truths, ii. 132.

- fupposed by others to be corruptions of Civil History, and to have their foundation in real facts, which doubtless is the truth, ii. 132.

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- invented (fome few however) to convey moral and

physical Truths, ii. 135.

first allegorised when the secret of the Gods being dead men deified began to be detected, and the absurd and immoral stories of the common mythology gave offence, ii.

303, 305, 315. - of Homer said to be physical, ethical, and moral

allegories, ii. 307.

- spiritualized by allegorical interpretations when attacked by the Christians, who could not object against a method which they had just borrowed from Paganism to spiritualize the Scriptures, ii. 308.

FUTURE STATE of rewards and punishments improperly so called, where the happiness and misery consequent on virtue and vice are necessary, and not by the designation of will, ii. 88.

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proved from the unequal ways of Providence in this

world, 21, 24.

FUTURE STATE properly so called, the inculcating the Doctrine of it necessary to the well being of Civil Society, 9.

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Society, 9-26.

- restrains from fecret transgression-obliges to the duties of imperfect obligation, 13, 14. (See Duties)enforces the fanction of rewards, 22. (See REWARDS)-

the only support of religion, 23-25.

- proved farther, in that all mankind, especially the most wise and learned nations of antiquity, Lawgivers and Philosophers, have concurred in believing and teaching, that this doctrine was of such use to Civil Societies, 87. See LAWGIVERS and PHILOSOPHERS.

FUTURE STATE, the Doctrine of it omitted by Moses, there-

fore his law of divine original, 7. See RELIGION.

- not believed by the very Philosophers, who so industriously inculcated the doctrine of it, ii. 86. See Phi-LOSOPHERS.

believed only by fuch of the Legislators who were not professed Philosophers, ii. 240. See LAWGIVERS.

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God held, by the Philosophers, incapable of anger or other pasfions, which infers the denial of a future state of rewards

and punishments, ii. 183-199.

fupposed to deliver up the government of the several regions of the earth to inserior Gods, Demons, and Local tutelary Deities, who were believed to have passions and assections, ii. 194.

held by those who believed there was but one subflance, to be the universal nature or To is: these were

Atheists, ii. 199.

held by those who believed there were two subflances, to be a spirit pervading the universe, and serving it for a foul: these were Theists, ii. 209, 229.

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HERO-WORSHIP, or the worship of dead men deified, the second of the three species of Idolatry, ii. 297. See IDOLATRY.

falfely afferted to be the primitive worship, in order to overturn all religion, and make it a state-invention, ii. 288.

perinduced upon the Planetary, ii. 289-302.

#### T

IDOLATRY, three species of it; 1. The Planetary and Eleman-

tary; 2. Hero-worship; 3. Brute-worship.

Bodies and Elements, as the Sun, Moon, Stars, Fire, Earth, &c. proved to be prior to the other two, ii. 292—296.

the second species, or the worship of dead men deified, Kings, Lawgivers and public Benefactors, proved to be super-induced upon the primary worship of the Heavenly

Bodies, ii. 300-302.

the third species, or Brute-worship, took its rise from the method of the Egyptians, to record the history of their Hero Gods, in Hieroglyphical sigures of Animals, (which stood for marks of their Elementary Gods and Heroes.) This introduced a symbolic worship of their Gods under these sigures. But (as in the case of Saint-worship among the Catholics) the symbol was soon forgot, and at length the animals themselves whose sigures the Hierogly.

Hieroglyphics represented, became the object of adoration, ii. 208.

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LAWGIVERS of old believed the doctrine of a Future State, properly fo called, necessary to the well being of Civil Society, 87.

took care always to inculcate it, as appears,

1. from the univer/ality of it among all civilized nations,

except the Fervish.

2. from the nature of the Pagan Religion, in reference to the origin of their Gods (Kings and Founders of civil policy,) to the attributes, given to these Gods (always corresponding with the genius of the Government) and to the mode of publick worship, directed to Local Tutelary Deities, 95-103.

used divers methods and arts to inculcate that

doctrine, 103.

much to beget a veneration for their laws, as to establish

the opinion of a Providence, 104-112.

prefaced their laws with the doctrine of a general Providence, of which two inflances (the only remains of this kind, those of Zaleucus and Charondas) proved to be senuine, 111-136.

inflituted Mysseries folely with a view to support the doctrine of a Providence by inculcating the belief of

a future state, 136. See Mysteries.

united Religion thus propagated to the flate, ii.

1, &c. See ALLIANCE, CHURCH.

allowed a large and full Toleration in matters of

Religion, ii. 33. See Toleration.

were the first who went out of Greece to Egypt to learn the art of Law-giving, as Orphcus, Rhadamanthus, Minos, Triptolemus, and others, and received with it the Double-Doctrine, ii. 104. See Double-Doctrine.

not believe the Doctrine of a Future State, which they took care to inculcate for it's usefulness to Civil Society,

ii. 240. See Philosophers.

### M

Magic, three forts of it; 1. The magic of invocation or Necromancy, which had its birth from the Shews in the Mysteries; 2. The magic of transformation or Metamorphofis, derived from the Metempsychosis taught in the Mysteries: these two condemned as criminal; 3. The magic of divine communication under a visible appearance or Theury, which came

came from the AHOPIHTA concerning the divine nature,

the Theurgic espoused by the latter Platonists and Pythagoreans, who had their Philosophic Mysteries, the rites of which consisted in the practice of Theurgical Magic. These were the Mysteries the Emperor Julian was so fond of, 324.

METAMORPHOSIS, Or transformation of the body, arose from the doctrine of the Metemplychosis or Transmigration of the Soul,

being a mode of it, ii. 138.

made a confiderable part in the popular notion of Providence, as a punishment of vice in this world, ii. 136.

was received wherever the doctrine of the Trans-

migration prevailed, ii. 136.

gained belief by the difordered imagination of a melancholy habit, an inflance of which was the diftemper called the Lycanthropy, where the possessed fancied himself turned into a wolf or other animal, ii 136.

is a species of the antient Fables, ii. 135. See

FABLES.

of Ovid, a poem formed on the most sublime and regular plan, a popular History of Providence, carried down from the creation to his own times, thro' the Egyptian, Phanician, Greek and Roman Histories, ii. 138, 142.

METEMPSYCHOSIS, or Transmigration of Soul, a doctrine employed by the antients to explain the ways of Providence,

ii. 135.

the first a moral defignation of Providence, to set right, in a future state, the inequalities in the affairs of this world: the second a physical, necessary transition of the soul into other bodies, without any moral consideration of rewards and punishments. ii. 144.

taught in this last manner by Pythagoras among his esteric or secret doctrines, ii. 145. See PYTHAGORAS.

gave birth to the Metamorphosis or transformation of the body, ii. 136.

Missionaries Catholic and Pretestant constantly attended with

ill fuccess, 70.

- the Catholic preach a commentitious fystem for the Gospel of Christ to civilized nations, who are not disposed to change old fables for new, 70.

the Protestant carry the genuine Gospel with them, but preach it to Savages with no better success, 70.

fhould first civilize, and then instruct, 71.

prevented from doing so by the inhuman policy

of

of the European colonies, who do all in their power to keep the natives in a favage state, and by the yet more diabolic Slave-trade, which robs the opposite continent of fo many thousands of our species, for a yearly facrifice to GAIN, 73.

- will never succeed till the two projects of civili-

zing and saving are joined, 74.

not fo wife as the artient Lawgivers, who always taught religion and civil policy together, 76.

Morality founded on three principles:

- 1. The moral fense or instinct, whereby we perceive a pleafure in right, and an aversion to wrong, prior to all reflexion.
- 2. The effential differences of human actions, discovered by reason.
- 3. A superior will or the will of God, from which (when discovered, with his Being and Attributes, and not before) arose a moral difference and an obligation to comply, as our duty, with what instinct perceived, and reason discovered, 37, 38.

- the knowledge of it therefore cannot be attained to by Atheists, who deny the Being and Will of God, 43. See Atheists.

- founded by some upon the moral sense singly, with whom the metaphysical demonstration of the effential difference in human actions, is visionary, and the Will of a superior makes the practice of virtue mercenary and servile, 40.

- founded by another folely on the effential differences of things, exclusive of the Will of God, which cannot make any thing morally good and evil, nor be the cause of any obligation on moral agents, because the nature of things are independent on that Will, 40.

- founded by a third on the Will of a superior alone, who rejects the moral sense and essential differences of things as empty notions, and afferts that the notions of fit and unfit proceed only from the arbitrary impositions of Will, 41. See OBLIGATION.

MYSTERIES invented by the Legislator to establish the doctrine of a Providence, by inculcating the belief of a future state

of Rewards and Punishments, 202-210.

- the first and original were those of Isis and Osiris in Egypt, from thence they came into Greece, under the Presidency of various Gods, as the Institutor thought most for his purpose, 138.

were incredibly numerous; each of the Pagan

Gods

Gods having (befides the public and open) a fecret worship called the Mysteries, 137. ---- continued long in religious reverence; the most noted were the Orphic, the Bacchic, the Eleusinian, the Samothracian, the Cabiric, and Mithriac, 139. the Eleusinian at Athens, in honour of Ceres, the most renowned, into which all Greece and Asia Minor were initiated. - introduced the doctrine of a Metempsychosis or belief of a prior flate, to clear up the intricate ways of Providence, 142. - obliged the initiated folemnly to commence a new life of the strictest virtue, 145-and bound them to fecrecy on pain of death, ii. 180. —— two forts, the Greater and Lesser. the Leffer taught, by certain fearet rites and shews. the origin of fociety, and the doctrine of a future statewere preparatory to the Greater, and might be communicated eafily to all, 149. ---- the Greater, into which after four years of probation, the initiated were admitted, taught the 'Amoponia or bidden Doctrines; namely, the detection of Polytheifm. that the vulgar Gods were only dead men; and the discovery of the unity, that there was but one supreme God, the Creator of all things, by whom the inferior local tutelary Gods were set over the several parts of the world, 154-167. gave the name of MΥΣΤΗΣ to the initiated into the Lesser and that of EHOHTHE (i. e. one that sees things as they are) to those that were admitted to the Greater, - celebrated openly by the Cretans, and why, 182. highly extolled by the Antients, 184-190. revealed by Diagoras (for which he was deemed an Atheist and proscribed by the city of Athens) and also by Eubemerus in a more artful manner, 181, 182. - celebrated with a Hymn concerning the unity, fung by the Hierophant in the habit of the Creator, supposed to be the little Orphic Poem quoted by Clemens Alexandrinus, 177. - degenerated at last, and became horribly subfervient to lust and revenge. - Causes of it, 190-197, - continued however to teach the doctrine of a future state, even in the most debauched celebrations of Cupid and Bacchus, the most obscene parts of the mysterious

rites being introduced under the pretence of being em-

abolished

blems of regeneration and a new life, 192.

abolished, except the Eleusinian, by Valentinian's edict against Nocturnal sacrifices, 188.

Eleufinian totally abolified afterwards by Theodofius the elder, 189

exclaimed against by the Fathers as impious and immoral in their very original (which was not true,) and yet, after this, they studiously transfer the Terms, Phrases, Rites, Ceremonies, and Discipline of these very mysteries into our holy Religion, the effects of which have been severely felt, 197, 200, note (n).

Hell, which is shewn to be an allegorical description of an initiation, and a very exact picture of the Speciacles, Shews and Representations in the Eleusinian Mysleries, 210—296.

alluded to likewise by Apuleius (the gravest, most virtuous, and most learned Philosopher of his age) in his Metamorphosis or story of the Golden ass, and particularly in his Episode of Cutid and Pyche, which are shewn to be allegorical recommendations of the mysteries, 304—326.

MYTHOLOGY, the Old Pagar only the corruptions of historical tradition, 103. See Fables.

#### 0

Obligation founded on the Will of God, which alone can make a compliance with the effential difference in actions, a Duty, 38. See MORALITY.

necessarily implies an obliger different from and not the same with the obliged, otherwise there would be no obligation at all, 46.

and forbid; but a law is the imposition of a superior, who hath power to exact obscience, 47.

cannot arise from the perception of the fitness and unfitness of things, which is only a motive, but not an obligation to action. For till a man is made fensible that he hath received his Being from the Will of another, and is accountable to him for it, he can be under no obligation to prefer good to evil, 46, 47.

arifes in the independent first cause of all things from his own Wisdom, and can mean, when applied to God, no

more than direction, 50.

arifes in all intelligent dependent Beings, from the Will of the first cause; of which Will, the sense of right and wrong, so strongly implanted in us, and the essential differences of things, are the plainest indication as well as the rule, 52, 54.

Ovid

Ovidence, 138. See Fables.

P

PHILOSOPHERS, THEISTICAL, unanimous, as well as the Law-
givers, that the doctrine of a future state was necessary to
the well being of Civil Society, ii. 77—85.
did not believe that future state, which they so
industriously propagated to the world, ii. 86.
taught that every one should conform to the Reli-
gion of his country, tho' they saw the gross errors of the
national Religions, ii. 90, 91.
led to this by the opinion, That Utility, and not
Total out this by the opinion, That Othery, and not
Truth, was the end of Religion, ii. 91.
concluded from thence that Utility and Truth do
not coincide, and therefore held that it was lawful and ex-
pedient to deceive for the publick good, ii. 91, 92, 256.
did, accordingly, say one thing when they thought
another, ii. 92.
had a twofold or double dostrine; the exoteric, ex-
ternal or vulgar; and the esoteric, internal or secret, ii. 92.
taught the first openly to all, and the other to a
select number, ii. 92. See Double-Doctrine.
practifed the double-doctrine, in reference to the
doctrine of a future state, ii. 109.
professed that doctrine as Lawgivers and in pub-
Lie but reight it in their private fregulations ii 100
lic, but rejected it in their private speculations, ii. 109.
the Pythagoric, the Platonic, the Peripatetic, the
Stoic, did not believe, tho' all sedulously taught, the doc-
trine of a future state, ii. 126. See PYTHAGORAS, PLATO,
Aristotle, and Zeno.
were always wont to judge and determine on
metaphysical rather than on moral maxims, ii. 182.
held principles inconfistent with the doctrine of
a future state, so could not believe it, ii. 183, 235.
believed that God could neither be angry nor hurt any
one, which principle destroys God's Providence here as
well as a future state of rewards and punishments hereafter,
ii, 183—198.
held univerfally that the foul was a part or particle
of God discerped from him, and would be rejoined to him again,
ii. 199—218.
consequently could not believe the soul to have a
separate existence after death in a future state of rewards
and punishments, ii. 218. See Soul.
their disbelief of a future state, brings no discredit
to the Christian Doctrines, but, instead of weakening, is a
strong argument for their truth, 240-242.
could

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- could by natural reason perceive Truth and its deductions when proposed, but could not generally discover it, and draw right deductions from it, ii. 243.

— could penetrate very far into the effential difference of things, but knew not the origin of obligation, nor the

confequence of obedience, ii. 244.

- guilty therefore of gross absurdities in their best

discourses on morality, ii. 244.

- modern have published excellent systems of morals, as built on the Principles of natural religion, but in reality founded on the principles of Revelation, early imbibed, ii. 244.

- PHILOSOPHERS, Greek, the NATURALISTS who bore the name of Sophists, were the fecond after the Legislators that went into Egypt, where they learnt Physics and Mathematics, as Thales, Anaximander, Anaximenes, Xenophanes, Parmenides, and Leucippus, who had little regard to the Double-doctrine.
  - properly fo called, compounded of the Lawgiver, and Naturalift, were the last that went into Egypt for instruction, of whom Pythagoras was the first and chiefthey joined in one the studies of law-giving and philo/ophy, and began to cultivate the belief of a future state, and at the same time, the practice of the Double-doctrine, the two diffinguishing badges of their character, ii. 106.

PHILOSOPHY, Greek, ranged in the Eleatic line (composed of different kind of Atheists) the Italic (derived from Pythagoras) and the Ionic composed of naturalists or Sophists, till

the time of Socrates, ii. 114.

- divided by Plato into Physics, Morals, and Logic, ii. 107.

PLATO more famous for his Philosophy than his Politics, ii. 150.

- espoused the Double-dostrine which he brought from Egypt, and the division of his auditors into the exoteric and esoteric classes, ii. 151.

- founded the Old Academy, See ACADEMICS.

- avowed the principles on which the Double-doctrine was founded, That some truths are not fit for the people to know; - that the world is not to be intrusted with the true notion of God, &c. ii. 151.

had a twofold character. As the Disciple and Historian of Socrates, he appears a sceptic and affirms nothing: as the Head of a Sest, and master of Xenocrates and Aristotle, he is a Dogmatist, ii. 122, note (k).

- in his books of laws he defends the popular opinion of the Planetary Gods, but in his Cratylus laughs at

the

the Antients for worshiping the Sun, and Stars, ii. 152.

treats of the doctrine of a future state, in his exote-

ric books, ii. 152.

is the first who brought reasons for the eternity or immortality of the soul, which concluded only for the

foul's permanency, ii. 155. See Soul.

refined upon the natural or Pythagorean Metempsychofis, by adding that those transitions were the purgations of impure minds, unfit to rejoin that substance from whence they were discerped, and consequently pure minds were exempt from this transmigration, ii. 155.

inculcated a future state of rewards and punishments, always in the gross popular sense, but did not believe it, ii. 156.

- is underflood by the most intelligent of the antients, to speak of such a future flate only in the exoteric way to the people, and not as his real sentiments, ii. 157—160.
- Pomponatius falfely reckoned by *Bayle* among those that deny the usefulness of *Religion* to civil society, 26, 27.

- ranks mankind into four classes:

1. Those that are so framed by nature, as to be brought to the practice of virtue by the consideration of its dignity.

2. Those that are worked upon chiefly by fame and ho-

nours, by infamy and difgrace.

3. Those that are virtuous in hope of a reward or out

of fear of punishment.

4. Those that are intractable, for whom the Politician contrived the doctrine of a future state, where eternal rewards are reserved for the virtuous, and eternal punishments (the more powerful influence of the two) for the wicked, 28—30.

PROVIDENCE, as believed by the Theistical Philosophers, very confisent with a dishelief of a future state of rewards and

punishments, ii. 193.

denied by the Peripatetics and Stoics to extend to

held by the Pythagoreans and Platonists to extend

to individuals, ii. 193.

or Demons, ii. 194. See DEMONS.

PYTHAGORAS the only Greek, who was properly both Lawgiver and Philosopher: most famous for his legislating character, ii 126—128.

learnt his Legislation from Orpheus, and his Phi-

losophy from Pherecydes Syrus, ii. 126.

--- cultivated

- cultivated the double dostrine (which he brought from Egypt, where he fojourned twenty two years) and divided his scholars into the ejoteric and the exoteric classes, ii. - instituted mysteries, in which was taught as usual the unity of the divine nature, and brought not only their principles but some of their observances into the schools, as abstinence from beans and some animals, which caused the fecret Doctrines and the Mysteries to be a little confounded, ii. 127, 128. grew fo famous, that almost every eminent Lawgiver before, after, and during his time, was numbered amongst his disciples, ii. 130. delivered in his sekool the Metempsychosis or migration of the foul from one body to another, by a physical necessity among his esoteric or secret doctrines, ii. 145. - taught the same doctrine in the sense of a moral designation of Providence amongst his exoteric or popular doctrines, whose end was utility and not truth, ii. 145. See METEMPSYCHOSIS. ---- reputed generally, tho' falfely, the author of the moral Transmigration (which he learnt in Egypt) as well as the natural, which was peculiarly his, ii. 145. - introduced by Ovid, openly declaring to the Crotoniates his efoteric doctrine of his own Metempsychofis, and confequently denying a future state of rewards and punishments, ii. 145. R Religion founded among all nations, except the Jewish, upon the doctrine of a future state, 25. could not be supported without it, ii. 23. —— necessary to Civil Society, 25. fupplies the defects of Civil Laws, ii. 11, 22. See FUTURE STATE. has not the care of the body, but only of the foul, - has no coercive power, as unnecessary for the attainment of its ultimate end, the falvation of fouls, ii. 7. See CHURCH. ---- cannot exert its influence, nor fubfift, without the fupport and protection of the State, ii. 9-11. when united to the State becomes a national or established Religion by law, which is the voice of nature, ii. 2, 18, 27. See Alliance. deemed by unbelievers, from its usefulness to Civil Society, to be a State invention, and confequently vifionary and groundless, 25. ii. 248. Vol. II.

- elegantly described as such by Critias in his land

bics, ii. 249-253. by Polybius, Strabo, and Pliny, ii. 79-85. tho' invented by Statesmen, it would not therefore follow, that Religion is false, ii. 254-256, 280-287. - must be proved to be so by one or other of these arguments; I. Because not found out as a truth by the use of reason (which is a high prefumption;) 2. or, Because it was invented only for its utility (which is a demonstration of its truth;) 3. or, Because the inventors did not believe it; (which, tho' most to the purpose, proves nothing) ii. 254— - blended with *supersistion*, thought to be worse than Atheism, particularly by Plutarch, whose arguments are examined and answered, ii. 257-285. - not invented by the Lawgiver or Magistrate, but found by him even amongst the most uncultivated people, could not be reformed by the Lawgiver, how gross soever he found it, but only strengthened with national rites and ceremonies, ii. 320, 321. RELIGION, Pagan, an aggregate of several distinct Religions derived from so many pretended revelations, which were not laid on the foundation of one another, but each local tutelary Deity, according to the nature given him, had his peculiar worship: nor were they raised on the destruction of one another, as not confifting in matters of belief, but in tractical Rites and Ceremonies, ii. 37-40. - admitted of an inter-community of the several worships or universal Toleration, ii. 40. See Toleration. --- liable to no disputes but whose God was most powerful, except when by accident it was contested who was truly the tutelar God of the place, which happened once in Egypt, ii. 40-43. - continued always to be without a dogmatic theology or formulary of faith, and consequently, preserved its principle of inter-community, even to this day, ii. 44-46. abhorred the Jewife and Christian Religions for their unfociableness, and refusal of inter-community of avorthip, which gave rife to persecution, ii. 46, 47. RELIGION, Jewish, had no future state for its support, therefore must be supported by an extraordinary Providence, 8. — taught the belief of one God in contradiffinction

to all the gods of the *Pagans*, which produced a *dogmatic* Theology, and confequently a prohibition from all fellow-

ship with the Gentiles, ii 40, 47.

----esteemed

tions, and from their principle of inter-community of avorship, joined by them with their own: Thus the Jews of Jerusalem added the Pagan idolatries to their Religion, while the Pagans of Samaria added the Jewish Religion to their Idolatries, ii. 49.

growing more rigid after the Captivity, and refufing all communion with the Gentiles, it was treated with the utmost contempt for its unsociableness; but as it was not obtruded on the rest of mankind, it escaped Persecu-

tion, ii. 49, 50.

RELIGION, the Christian, founded upon the Jowish, 5. ii.

47, 50.

mankind, and therefore had a more compleat dogmatic Theology, ii. 47.

was received at first with complacency by the Pagans, who knew nothing of its dependency on the Yezvish,

11. 50.

introduced by one Emperor among his closet Religions, and proposed to the Senate by another to be publicly received, ii. 51.

when found to claim the title of the only true one, and to urge the necessity of forsaking all others, the Pagans were shocked, and perfecution for Religion (hitherto

unknown) quickly arose, ii. 52.

not perfecuted to make the Professors renounce their Religion, but for its destroying the natural (as was thought) and fundamental principle of inter-community of worship, ii. 53-56.

enjoins and forbids nothing in moral practice, but what natural Religion had before enjoined and forbid,

83.

does not contain a regular system of morals, but refers for a general knowledge of moral duty to the law of nature, which is made the rule to explain the occasional precepts of the Gospel, 82, 84.

is not merely a re-publication of the law of nature, 7.
affected, by accident only, with the affection that

Religion is a State-invention, because it gives a different account of the origin of divine worship, ii. 287. See IDO-LATRY.

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they neither were or could be established as such, 19.

can only be supplied by Religion, 22. See Civil
Society.

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SOCRATES turned Philosophy from Physics to Morals, ii. 115.

thing was to be disputed, ii. 116.

\_\_\_\_ brought in, for that end, the principles of doubt and uncertainty, that nothing could be known, and that every

— confined these principles to Physics, whilst his followers, Arcefilaus and Carneades, extended them to all Philosophical inquiries, ii. 116, 121. - founded the Socratic school, whose subdivisions were the Platonic or Old Academy, the Peripatetic, the Stoic, the middle and new Academies, ii. 116. See Academics. was a dogmatist in morals, as appears by Xenophon, and the less fabulous parts of Plato, ii. 121. his method of confuting the Sophists by advancing nothing of his own, and turning their own principles and concessions against them, produced the Socratic way of disputing by interrogation, and gave birth to the samous Attic Irony, ii. 121. - refused to be initiated into the Eleusinian Mysteries, (which exposed him to much censure) being deterred from it by the mischief attending the communication of the secret doctrines, ii. 181. was fingular in confining himself to morals, and in believing a future state of rewards and punishments, ii. 235. — declares it as his opinion before his Judges, that every one should conform to the Religion of his country, ii. 90. - confirms this opinion by his practice just before his death, in ordering his friends to facrifice a cock to Æsculapius, due from him according to the customs of his country—a fact that much puzzles the critics, ii. 90. accounted for, ii. 91. Soul believed to be only a quality by Epicurus and others, and confequently, to be annihilated after death, ii. 199. held by the generality of Philosophers, to be a fubflance and a discerped part of a whole, or God, in whom it was again to be refolved, ii. 199, 208-214. - believed to pre-exist as well as post-exist, thence called God, eternal, ungenerated, self-existent, ii. 204, 210. not believed to be eternal in its distinct existence, but discerped from God in time, and would in time be rejoined to him again, ii. 205. - fupposed, by the greatest part, to be rejoined at death, but by the Pythagoreans, not till after many transmigrations. - when pure, believed by the Platonists to be rejoined immediately on death, but when polluted to be fent into a

fuccession

fuccession of other bodies, to be purified before it returned to its parent substance, it. 205. See METEMPSYCHOSIS.

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  - dition of their alliance, ii. 25 See Alliance.
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